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Antecedents and Outcomes of Downward Trust in Organisations

Xiaotong Zheng

*Thesis Submitted in Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy*

*Durham University Business School
Durham University*

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Abstract

The crucial role of trust in organisations has been demonstrated by previous trust research. This thesis attempts to shed light on a new perspective on our understanding of trust relationships in organisations by investigating downward trust from two perspectives – that of the leaders’ and of the followers’ – to paint a complete picture. This thesis investigates different antecedents and outcomes of downward trust. In respect of antecedents of supervisors’ trust in the follower, two sets of antecedents are proposed – a set of general antecedents, ability, benevolence and integrity (ABI) and another set of specific ones, availability and receptivity. The general antecedents were found to be stronger predictors than the specific ones. A person-oriented approach was adopted along with a variable-oriented approach. On the basis of their pattern of scores across the trustworthiness variables, five categories of followers were identified, which were trustworthy, trustable, capable, well-meaning and untrustworthy followers. The patterns predicted leaders’ trust in followers and their ratings on follower job performance. Regarding employee felt trust, perceived justice and delegation were found to influence their perceptions of being trusted. Employee occupational self-efficacy was found to mediate the relationship between employee felt trust and job performance. The interaction between downward trust and upward trust was also considered by examining the (in)congruence between downward trust (follower felt trust) and upward trust (trust in leaders) using an empirical technique – response surface analysis. In general, follower occupational self-efficacy and job performance were found to be enhanced when the congruence was at a high trust level, also when downward trust was higher than upward trust, if they were incongruent.

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this Ph.D. thesis entitled “**Antecedents and Outcomes of Downward Trust in Organisations**” was carried out by me for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Organisational Behaviour under the guidance and supervision of Prof Rosalie Hall and Prof Birgit Schyns, Durham University Business School, Durham University, United Kingdom.

For the present thesis, which I am submitting to Durham University Business School, no degree or diploma or distinction has been conferred on me before, either in this or in any other university.

Xiaotong Zheng

STATEMENT OF COPYRIGHT

The copyright of this thesis rests with the author. No quotation from it should be published without the author's prior written consent and information derived from it should be acknowledged.

Dedication

I dedicate this thesis to Graham Dietz (1969-2014), who was my supervisor, a friend and a very important person in my life. He passed away in 2014 just before Christmas. That Christmas and New Year was one of the saddest periods in my life. Even now there is a huge sorrow in my heart when I think of him. I miss him very much.

I met Graham when I started my master's programme in Durham. He was the module leader for Organisational Behaviour and I was impressed by his charm and enthusiastic attitude toward teaching. That was also the first time I met trust theory, and I found I was just fascinated and interested by his vivid examples from our own daily lives and from different movies. I then started to discuss trust studies with Graham. Afterwards, he suggested that I should do a trust project with him for my master's dissertation. It was about developing and improving trust through trust workshops. These workshops were the first time that I saw how followers and leaders were convinced by trust theory. The experience confirmed my decision to pursue a research career and to contribute to trust theory development.

When I started to prepare my PhD application. Graham provided me with kind and professional guidance with my research proposal, even after I had finished my master's dissertation when I was in China. He kindly recommended me to Tom Redman and asked him to provide a reference letter and comments on my proposal. After my application was accepted by Durham University Business School, I had a problem getting a CAS for my visa application. Graham helped me to follow up my application process so that I could get the CAS in time. These jobs were not his

responsibility. He always liked to help his students. He said, “Janey, just do whatever you want. If I can’t help, I will find another person to help you.”

Graham meant much more to me than just being a supervisor. His optimistic attitude towards life and research encouraged me then, and even now. He always gave me opportunities to develop my academic abilities. Already in the first year of my PhD programme, he encouraged me to work with him as a teaching assistant. He trusted me and allowed me to design the seminars in my own way.

Graham and I both believed that trust research has a great impact on how people think and react to the world. We not only discussed academic papers, but happenings in the world that were relevant to trust. Moreover, he sent research materials to me and helped me to build my conceptual model. The last message that I received from him was when he was on a train coming back to Durham. He asked me to read two papers that we could discuss on the following Monday. I still remember the feeling of my world suddenly collapsing when I was told about his heart attack. I found out about it one week after it happened.

I was heartbroken and just wanted to quit because I didn’t feel I could complete my research and I didn’t even want to do it without him. But I was Graham’s student, and deep in my heart I was influenced by his spirit. I knew I had to be strong and continue my research, not only for myself but also for him. I thank all the people who helped me out of this sorrow and to continue: Tom Redman, Kiran Fernandes and especially my new supervisors, Rosalie Hall and Birgit Schyns.

Therefore, I dedicate this thesis to Graham Dietz. Without him, it wouldn’t even exist and I wouldn’t have started my PhD journey. I hope he will be proud of it. I never told him that I am so proud of being his student...

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Studying and working at Durham University Business School has been one of the most memorable periods in my life. I am incredible lucky to have had this opportunity to learn from and work with the fantastic team at the International Centre for Leadership and Followership.

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Second, I would like to take this opportunity to thank my family. I couldn’t have completed my PhD research without the support I received from my parents and parents-in-law. They never put me under pressure to worry about things other than my research. Although they could not provide professional suggestions about my research or my career development, I felt encouraged every time I talked to them. Special thanks are due to my mother. She has sacrificed a lot since I was born. I

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Third, I want to thank my wonderful friends for their company along this journey. Especially, I would like to give a huge hug to David Barnes, a teacher, a proofreader and an old friend. He has read every piece of work that I've written. He is the fourth person to know what I have been doing in my PhD. I also want to thank Yuyan (Cherry) Zheng, who was my data analysis consultant when I started my research. She was supportive and patient with any stupid question I asked. In addition, I want to thank Sue Chui, Yi (Ariel) Gu and Jieke (Coco) Chen for their kindness, company and encouragement.

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1 CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 The purpose of this thesis

Trust is a cross-disciplinary topic (Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, & Camerer, 1998) which has been investigated in many different disciplines, including economics (Williamson, 1993), psychology (Simpson, 2007), sociology (Lewis & Weigert, 1985), and neuroscience (Holtz, 2013). Economists treat trust as a self-interest-seeking process (Williamson, 1993). Sociologists consider it to be an emotional-bond-reciprocating process (Lewis & Weigert, 1985). Psychologists deal with trust as a psychological state (Li, 2007). Neuroscientists investigate trust as an automatic and unconscious cognitive process (Holtz, 2013). Nevertheless, Rousseau et al. (1998) show that scholars from different disciplines agree on the two key dimensions of trust, that is, a *willingness to be vulnerable* and *positive expectations*.

Trust is also widely discussed in the organisational and management literatures. The foundations for this research go back to the 1990s. In 1998, several famous trust studies were published in a special issue of a leading peer-reviewed journal: the *Academy of Management Review*. The special issue included papers by Rousseau et al. (1998) which reviewed trust across different disciplines, a study by McKnight, Cummings and Chervany (1998) which examined the initial trust-building process, and Lewicki, McAllister and Bies's (1998) work on trust and distrust. Although now about 20 years old, these articles are still often cited in current trust articles. But possibly the conceptualisation that has had the most enduring influence on subsequent trust research in the organisational context is Mayer and his colleagues' (1995) integrative model of trust (1995), as noted in McEvily and Tortoriello (2011).

There is a consensus among scholars that trust plays a crucial role in organisations. It has been found that trust is highly related to performance, at the individual, group, and organisational levels (De Jong, Dirks, & Gillespie, 2016; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Mayer & Davis, 1999). As the research interest in the management literature in recent decades has been on leadership or leader effectiveness, trust research in the organisational context often focuses on upward trust, which refers to the trust extended from the follower to the leader. It has been found that various factors influence a follower's trust in a leader, including characteristics of both the leader and the follower (see meta-analysis by Colquitt, Scott, & LePine, 2007) meta-analysis), leader behaviours and perceived leadership (see the review in Burke, Sims, Lazzara, & Salas, 2007). However, scholars are gradually realizing the essential role of followership in understanding leadership, and that there is no leadership without followership (Collinson, 2006). They are starting to investigate the means by which a) followers identify that a leader is worth following and coordinating with; and b) leaders influence or shape the followers' group identification in order to improve group cohesion (Van Vugt, Hogan, & Kaiser, 2008).

In this dissertation, I argue that the downward trust extended from the leader to the follower is equally important to upward trust for improving followership and forming follower group identification. This is because of the effects of reciprocity norms in the social exchange process and the role of perceived trust in follower self-evaluation. If trust is defined as a *willingness to be vulnerable* based on *positive expectations* (Mayer et al., 1995), then social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) implies that the receiving party – i.e., the follower – will appreciate the risk and the vulnerability extended by the giving party – i.e., the leader, and will reciprocate. Additionally, the perceived trust from the leader fulfils a follower's need for self-

worth and social validation, which then can positively affect his or her group identification (Fred Dansereau & Dansereau, 1995; Yammarino & Dansereau, 2002). Thus, downward trust is vital for both leaders and followers.

However, the nature of downward trust differs from upward trust, given the different role expectations of leaders and followers. Trust is built on *positive expectations* (Rousseau, et al., 1998). A leader and a follower have different types of expectations of each other. Generally, leaders expect job performance, commitment, and an emotional bond from their followers, while followers expect working resources, authority, and self-fulfilment from their leaders (Deluga, 1994; Yammarino & Dansereau, 2002). Thus, followers and leaders will view the exchanges between them from distinct perspectives, and the risks each party takes are also different. Therefore, the conditions in which the leader or the follower is prepared to extend trust to the other party are different. Although scholars have provided insights into upward trust in organisations, it is time to provide new insights into downward trust.

A thorough understanding of downward trust in organisations is crucial to trust theory development. The two parties in a trust relationship can both occupy the roles of trustor and trustee (Korsgaard, Brower, & Lester, 2015). However, the scarcity of research attention and the small number of empirical studies on downward trust limits our understanding of trust between leaders and followers. For example, we cannot find definitive answers in the current trust literature to questions such as whether trust antecedents affect followers' and leaders' perceptions differently, or whether the influence of different types of trust on follower and leader work behaviours are distinct. Therefore, the purpose of this thesis is to contribute to the trust and followership literatures by investigating downward trust in organisations in

order to provide a new perspective on trust relationships between leaders and followers.

The overarching approach to investigating downward trust in organisations in this thesis is built on two perspectives: that of the leader and of the follower. From the leader's perspective, downward trust refers to a supervisor's willingness to be vulnerable to the follower. This thesis studies some antecedent conditions under which the leader is likely to extend trust to the follower, utilizing both a variable-oriented approach and a person-oriented approach. From the follower's perspective, studying downward trust requires an examination of follower felt trust, that is, the follower's perceptions of the leader's willingness to be vulnerable to him or her. Working from the bases of both justice theory and individual self-evaluation theory, this thesis examines a model in which perceived justice is anticipated to have an effect on follower felt trust. Felt trust is then proposed to positively affect follower organisation-based self-esteem and occupational self-efficacy, which then influence the in-role and extra-role job performance of followers. Furthermore, with respect to the finding that trust within a dyad is not always mutual (Brower, Lester, Korsgaard, & Dineen, 2009), this thesis considers the congruence between downward trust and upward trust and examines the effects on a follower's self-evaluation and performance of the extent of congruence between the follower's felt trust from the leader and his or her own trust in the leader.

1.2 Research gaps and contributions of this thesis

Downward trust in organisations is a relatively new research area with considerable research gaps. This section therefore clarifies the specific research gaps which will be addressed in this thesis, in order to offer a clear picture of its contributions.

First, investigating downward trust in organisations provides a richer understanding of trust relationships between leaders and followers. Both parties are equally important for building high mutual trust relationships (Blau, 1964; Zapata, Olsen, & Martins, 2013). In addition, as organisations become flatter, leaders increasingly rely on their followers. Thus, it becomes more important to organisational success that leaders develop trust in their followers (Zapata et al., 2013). The two empirical studies described in Chapter 3 answer continual research calls for more research on supervisor trust in the follower. Indeed, Brower et al. (2000) called for more research on supervisor trust in the subordinate in organisations. Nine years later, in 2009, they still indicated that there were no published studies examining the effects of managers' trust in subordinates (Brower et al., 2009). At the Academy of Management Annual Meeting in 2017, Den Hartog (2017) also called for more theoretical frameworks and empirical studies on leader trust in followers, particularly on the factors influencing leaders' perceptions of follower trustworthiness.

Hence, the first goal of this study is to address this research gap by proposing and investigating factors predicting the leader's trust in the follower. A key theoretical perspective used to address this goal argues that ability, benevolence, and integrity (ABI) jointly explain a trustee's trustworthiness (Mayer et al., 1995). These variables have been found empirically to be strong predictors of upward trust, i.e., a follower's trust in leadership (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). However, it is worth investigating whether a leader's trust in a follower is similarly predicted by the follower's ABI. Along with ABI, two other factors, i.e., follower availability and receptivity, which are relevant to a leader's expectation of a follower, have been shown to be highly related to leaders' trust in followers (Werbel & Lopes Henriques, 2009), and will also be investigated in the current work. Thus Chapter 3 of the current dissertation

contributes to the downward trust literature by demonstrating the influence of different types of antecedents on the leader's perceptions of the follower. The proposed antecedents include the general trustworthiness characteristics of the follower, and specific antecedents to the hierarchical role of the follower in the trust relationship with the leader, i.e., availability and receptivity. The approach used allows a comparison of the unique effects of each antecedent in order to identify the most powerful predictors of leaders' trust in their followers.

A second goal of this study concerns Mayer et al.'s (1995) view that perceptions of another's ABI vary along a continuum. That is, trustees are not only perceived as either trustworthy or untrustworthy – e.g., with overall high or low ABI – but might also be high in one or two aspects of ABI but low or medium in the others. Previously research has demonstrated the unique effect of each aspect of ABI in predicting trust intention or other trust behaviours (see a meta-analysis from Colquitt et al., 2007). However, when evaluated by the leader, a follower is considered as a person rather than a summation of different variables (Foti & Hauenstein, 2007). Hence, it is necessary to shift the research focus from examining the unique effect of ABI to studying how different types of followers affect their leaders' trust in them. Therefore, to fill this research gap, in addition to employing a variable-oriented method, this research empirically derives patterns of perceived follower trustworthiness as captured by the set of ABI, availability and receptivity variables, utilizing a person-oriented analytic approach. Compared with the variable-oriented approach, which examines the unique causal relationships of individual trust antecedents with trust in the follower, a person-oriented method studies intra-individual variations across the set of antecedent variables to identify subgroups among followers that are perceived by their supervisors to have similar patterns of

trust antecedents. Therefore, Chapter 3 contributes to the trust literature by demonstrating the existence of different patterns of trustworthiness and further examining how the trust extended from leaders varies depending upon the different patterns of characteristics of the follower. This approach allows addressing questions such as whether leaders are more likely to trust followers when they are high in ability but low in benevolence and integrity, or vice versa.

Third, recent trust researchers have shown great interest in investigating trust from the trustee's perspective, that is, felt trust (e.g., Baer et al., 2015; Lau & Lam, 2008; Lau, Lam, & Wen, 2014; Lau, Liu, & Fu, 2007). Due to the limited number of empirical studies on felt trust, Baer et al. (2016) call for more research to expand our understanding of it. Moreover, Lau et al. (2014) call for more research to investigate the antecedents of felt trust, in order to understand the conditions in which the trustee is more likely to feel trusted. To answer these research calls, two empirical studies were conducted, as described in Chapter 4. These two studies investigate, first, the relationship of perceived justice with follower felt trust, and, second, the relationship of follower felt trust with follower job performance, along with the mediating mechanism(s) underlying the relationship between them. The current research contributes to the trust literature by investigating trust from a trustee's perspective, with the goal of demonstrating the importance of followers' felt trust to their job performance. In addition, the psychological mechanisms translating felt trust into important outcomes are examined in the two empirical studies in Chapter 4. Thus, the current research contributes to the felt trust literature by proposing and examining the antecedents – i.e., various types of perceived justice – that predict follower felt trust. The findings provide leaders with new insights into their

relationships with followers, that is, how leaders encourage their followers to feel they are trusted, in order to improve their job performance.

Relatedly, investigating felt trust also contributes to the further development of social exchange theory, and in particular, the idea of reciprocity norms, as a key explanatory theory underlying our understanding of trust as an interpersonal phenomenon. This thesis assumes that a high level of follower felt trust indicates that the follower adequately realizes the exchange between the trust that is given and the expectation of the giver. The realization will activate reciprocity norms. Thus, a high level of felt trust can fully activate reciprocity norms and then motivates the follower to perform as expected. Similarly, a low level of follower felt trust relates to poor performance.

Fourth, this thesis attempts to answer research calls to adopt a bilateral approach to investigating trust. A bilateral approach considers trust from both the trustor's perspective and the trustee's. The traditional unilateral approach only focuses on one party, thus is limited for understanding the interactional nature of the trust process. A bilateral approach is crucial in order to understand the interaction between the follower and the leader (Brower et al., 2009; Korsgaard et al., 2015). In studies described in Chapter 4, rather than assessing trust between the two parties at the dyadic level (e.g. Brower et al., 2009; De Jong & Dirks, 2012), the follower's trust in leadership and the follower's felt trust (based on the level of trust the follower perceives is extended by the leader) are used to assess the two sides of trust. The advantage of considering felt trust is that a follower's felt trust might be more directly related to the follower's job behaviours and performance than the actual

level of trust extended by the leader, because trust can be better translated into positive effects on the trustee when the latter perceives it.

Fifth, Korsgaard et al. (2015) suggest that future research should focus more on the unique and joint functions of mutual trust and asymmetric trust, which depict two types of trust situations wherein trust between the trustor and the trustee is equivalent or inequivalent. In addition, they call for more research on asymmetric trust in hierarchical relationships such as leader-follower exchange relationships, since the power differentiation implicit in the two different roles may contribute to the asymmetry. Both the leader and the follower might have different responses when trust is higher than felt trust or *vice versa*. To fill this research gap, the follow-up study in Chapter 4 investigates mutual and asymmetric trust in the comparison of follower felt trust and trust in the leader. Since mutual and asymmetric trust are statistically related (Cole, Bedeian, Hirschfeld, & Vogel, 2011), the unique effects of mutual trust and asymmetric trust are examined by utilizing response surface analysis. Thus, Chapter 4 contributes to trust literature by examining the unique effects of mutual trust and asymmetric trust capture the dynamic nature of the trust process. Tomlinson, Dineen and Lewicki (2009) argue that there might be nine types of trust based on the different levels of trust extended by each party. In addition, Korsgaard et al. (2015) indicate that trust is not always mutual. The follow-up study in Chapter 4 supports these arguments and suggests that there will be a more positive effect on follower psychological states and job behaviours when felt trust is higher than trust in the leader than *vice versa*.

Finally, this thesis also addresses a research call to further develop trust measures. A scale which captures both of the two dimensions of trust – willingness to be

vulnerable and positive expectations – is required (McEvily & Tortoriello, 2011). According to McEvily and Tortoriello (2011), most of the widely cited trust instruments are unidimensional, that is, they only focus on either the dimension of willingness to be vulnerable (e.g. Currall & Judge, 1995; Gillespie, 2003) or the dimension of positive expectations (Cummings & Bromiley, 1996; McAllister, 1995). McEvily and his colleague also suggest more replications of the current popular measures of trust, including those by Cummings and Bromiley (1996), Currall and Judge, (1995), Mayer and Davis (1999), McAllister (1995) and Gillespie (2003). The current dissertation fills this research gap by adding another dimension to one of the current noteworthy measures: Gillespie's (2003) instrument to measure the trustor's willingness to be vulnerable. A scale to measure positive expectations of the trustor is created in the follow-up study in Chapter 3. Hence, the measurement of trust in this follow-up study captures both the willingness to be vulnerable and positive expectations of the trustor, thus allowing for measuring a more comprehensive picture of trust with three dimensions.

Overall, this thesis employs an in-depth theoretical and empirical approach to examine downward trust in organisations. It contributes to the trust literature by developing a theoretical downward trust framework allowing for rich and testable hypotheses. These are tested in the four empirical studies. The two empirical chapters depict a comprehensive picture of downward trust by testing its antecedents, mediators, moderators and outcomes, from both the leader's and follower's perspective. Moreover, the thesis systematically reviews the existing downward trust literature and responds to significant research calls from previous scholars which have not been previously addressed. Furthermore, each of the two empirical chapters

contains both a preliminary study and a follow-up study. The follow-up study replicates and further develops the preliminary study results.

1.3 Outline of the thesis

Chapter 2 provides a brief literature review of important background information about the construct of trust, covering different definitions of trust and different types of trust. The relationship of trust with social exchange theory is also discussed. Building on these more general writings, the literature on two aspects of downward trust in the organisational context -- leader trust in followers and follower felt trust -- is reviewed. The theoretical foundations of the hypotheses tested in the subsequent Chapters 3 and 4 are discussed in the early pages of those chapters. Each of these two chapter reports the results of two studies, i.e., a preliminary study and a follow-up study. Chapters 3 and 4 each contain (1) an introduction, (2) the development of a relevant theoretical framework, (3) for each of the two studies in the chapter, descriptions of the research methodology, sample characteristics, measures and statistical methods used, (4) a report of empirical findings from the study, and (5) discussion and review of the research results, contributions, limitations and future research directions. Chapter 5 summarises and integrates the findings of the four studies, including the implications of the studies for theory and practice, as well as future research directions.

2 CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter provides a general review of the academic literature on trust, drawing especially on the organisational behaviour literature. It starts with a review of trust definitions, which is followed by a subsection on different trust concepts. There are three main ways to conceptualize trust, i.e., trust-as-belief, trust-as-intention and trust-as-behaviour (Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006). I review them briefly before addressing why the current research draws most heavily on the concept of trust-as-intention. Next, I discuss and review the major underpinning theory this thesis builds on, i.e., social exchange theory. Because the research interest of the thesis is trust in organisational contexts, I then provide an overview of trust in organisations. Specifically, the current dissertation concentrates on downward trust in organisations, from both leaders' and followers' perspectives. The following three sections of this chapter review trust from different perspectives and also review literature specific to supervisor trust in the follower and to follower felt trust.

2.1 A brief review of trust

2.1.1 Definition of trust

In the middle of the 20th century, Hosmer (1995) commented on the widespread lack of agreement on the definition of trust. More recently, after more than two decades of development of trust research, scholars are now converging on two common definitions (McEvily & Tortoriello, 2011). A considerable number of researchers utilize Mayer et al.'s (1995) definition that trust is *“the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to*

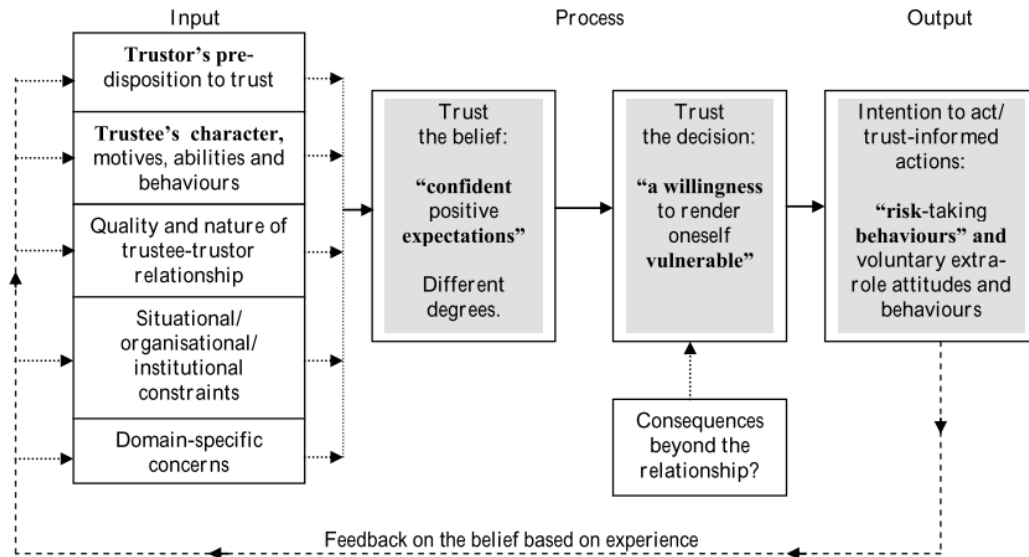
monitor or control that other party” (p. 712). Other trust researchers follow Rousseau et al.’s (1998) approach, defining trust as “*a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behaviour of another*” (p. 395)

Rousseau et al.’s assertion that trust is merely a *psychological state* does not fit the research interest of this thesis. This thesis draws on Mayer et al.’s definition rather than Rousseau et al.’s because it more precisely depicts the nature of leader-member exchange relationships, which are its focus. Specifically, this thesis considers downward trust involving supervisor-subordinate dyads in an organisational context. When supervisors trust their subordinates, they are vulnerable to the actions of those subordinates, who may or may not violate their trust. When supervisors have a willingness to be vulnerable, they expect that their subordinates will reciprocate this trust, such as by completing their tasks, performing better in their jobs, and showing more organisational commitment-related behaviour without the supervisor having to monitor or directly control them. These two highly cited definitions have led to the debate of whether trust is a psychological state (also known as trust-as-belief) or behaviour.

In addition to these two concepts of trust, another concept – trust-as-intention – this thesis draws on is also influential in the current trust literature and is included in the model adopted here (Colquitt, Scott, & LePine, 2007; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Jones & Shah, 2016; McEvily & Tortoriello, 2011). More specifically, Dietz and Den Hartog (2006) propose a comprehensive model (see Figure 2.1) to integrate and relate these three concepts, in order to specify a trust process model. In the next subsection, the three trust concepts are reviewed, together with their roles in the trust process model.

In addition, the reason why trust-as-intention best fits this thesis will be discussed in details as well.

Figure 2.1 Dietz and den Hartog's (2006) trust process model



2.1.2 Different trust concepts

2.1.2.1 Trust-as-belief

Trust-as-belief conceptualizes trust as a set of beliefs about another party whose actions will have positive consequences for oneself (Dietz & Hartog, 2006). For example, Lewicki, McAllister and Bies (1998, p. 439) describe trust as “*confident positive expectations;*” Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard and Werner (1998, p. 513) define trust as “*an expectation or belief that the other party will act benevolently;*” Boon and Holmes (1991, p. 191) depict trust as “*... confident positive expectations about another's motives;*” and Dirks and Ferrin (2002, p.612) suggest that trust is “*a belief or perception*” held by the trustor. Thus, trust-as-belief suggests that trust is based on *good reasons* (Lewicki et al. 1998) that tie to beliefs and expectations about the nature of the trustee. Thus, perceptions of the trustee's trustworthiness, can be

regarded as the source of the *good reasons* (Jones & Shah, 2016; Mayer et al., 1995). The word “trustworthiness” has been widely accepted and applied in the trust research area since Mayer et al.’s (1995) framework. However, the relevant research efforts date back to the 20th century, including Johnson-George and Swap (1982), Larzelere and Huston (1980), Roberts and O’Reilly (1974), and Scott (1980), but with a different term, namely, ‘trust conditions’. However, these earlier efforts did not result in a complete or exhaustive trust-as-belief construct (Butler, 1991). Hence, in order to explore an exhaustive set of trust conditions leading to trust, Butler (1991) developed a Conditions of Trust Inventory (CTI) based on 83 interviews and two construct validity studies. After Butler’s (1991) work on CTI, Mayer and his colleagues (1995) reviewed the previous trust research and synthesized it to conclude that trust is based on positive expectations that are determined by an assessment of the other party’s trustworthiness, in terms of that party’s ability, benevolence, and integrity (ABI).

Ability refers to a “*group of skills, competencies, and characteristics that enable a party to have influence within some specific domain*” (Mayer et al., 1995, p. 717). This means that the trustee has competence in one area, but might not be very capable in other areas. Benevolence refers to “*the extent to which a trustee is believed to want to do good to the trustor, aside from an egocentric profit motive*” (Mayer et al., 1995, p. 718). It describes the trustee’s motivation and intention in the relationship. Constructs similar to benevolence are *loyalty, caring, openness, and supportiveness* (Colquitt et al., 2007; Mayer et al., 1995). Integrity means that “*the trustee adheres to a set of principles that the trustor finds acceptable*” (Mayer et al., 1995, p. 719), and its synonyms include fairness, consistency, and promise-fulfilment (Colquitt et al., 2007; Mayer et al., 1995).

According to the ABI model, the three factors of perceived ability, benevolence, and integrity concisely describe the main determinants of whether an individual is believed to be trustworthy (Colquitt et al., 2007; Mayer et al., 1995). Note that each of the three aspects of trustworthiness can vary along a continuum (Mayer et al., 1995), and that their levels might be relatively independent of each other. For example, it might be the case that a trustee is perceived as being high in ability but low in benevolence and integrity, etc. To the best of my knowledge, there is no trust research that empirically investigates trustworthiness from such a pattern perspective. In response to this research gap, the two studies in Chapter 3 attempt to examine trustworthiness patterns by using a person-oriented approach to explore different patterns of follower trustworthiness, which are perceived as different levels of ability, benevolence, and integrity.

2.1.2.2 Trust-as-intention

Trust-as-intention conceptualises trust as a process of decision making, that is, take the decision to trust (Clark & Payne, 1997). Mayer et al. (1995) define trust as the *willingness to be vulnerable*, which, indeed, describes the trustor's intention. This definition is adopted in the present dissertation because it is the most compatible with its research objectives. Gillespie (2003) identifies two dimensions that capture trustor trust intentions: reliance intention (a willingness to rely on the particular trustee's work-related skills or judgement) and disclosure intention (a willingness to share personal or work-related information with the trustee). Mayer et al. (1995) indicate that willingness to be vulnerable is based on the trustor's positive expectations of the trustee, thus implying a link between trust belief and trust intention. That is, the trustor's trust intention builds on his or her perceptions of the

trustee's trustworthiness. Similarly, Jones and Shah (2016) indicate that trust beliefs precede, and provide the basis for, trust intentions.

In this thesis, in addition to the person-oriented approach mentioned in the previous section that is adopted to identify patterns of trustee trustworthiness, Chapter 3 also examines the relationship between perceived follower trustworthiness and a supervisor's trust intentions utilizing a variable-oriented approach. Although the relationship between these two trust concepts has been widely examined with respect to follower trust in the leader (Gillespie, 2003) and trust between peers (Gillespie, 2003; Jones and Shah, 2016), our understanding about how leaders perceive their followers' trustworthiness is incomplete. Thus, Chapter 3 attempts to contribute to trust theory by examining the relationship between trust beliefs and trust intentions within the downward trust relationship of a leader's trust in a follower. Chapter 4 additionally contributes to our understanding of trust intentions, but it takes a different perspective by investigating the effects of the perceived, rather than actual, trust intentions of a trustor (as perceived by the trustee). Chapter 4 proposes and examines antecedents and outcomes of the perceived intention.

2.1.2.3 Trust-as-behaviour

Trust-as-behaviour refers to risk-taking behaviour (Mayer et al., 1995). The main difference between trust intention and risk-taking behaviour is that a willingness to be vulnerable implies no actual behaviour, while risk-taking actually includes risky behaviour (Mayer et al., 1995). Moreover, risk-taking in relationships (RTR) is regarded as the outcome of willingness to be vulnerable (Mayer et al., 1995). Hence, Mayer et al. (1995) separate trust and risk-taking behaviour as two different constructs. Trust behaviour is the outcome of trust intention (willingness to be

vulnerable) translated into actual vulnerability. Such behaviours in the work context would include delegation without monitoring, reliance, and sharing sensitive information (Gillespie, 2003; Mayer et al., 1995).

The relationship between trust intention and trust behaviour is identified by Gillespie (2003) and Nienaber (2015), who argue that trust intention is a necessary precondition for risk-taking behaviour. The trustor will first have the intention to be vulnerable, and then he or she might take specific actions involving trusting the trustee. Thus, understanding risk-taking behaviours builds on investigating the conditions under which the trustor is more likely to extend a willingness to be vulnerable to the trustee and the conditions under which the trustee is more likely to perceive the trustor's trust intention.

So far, I have reviewed three trust conceptualizations and their relationships with each other. Dietz and den Hartog's (2006) model integrates the traditional, static views of trust into a more dynamic process model. In their model, developing trust beliefs is followed by extending the willingness to be vulnerable and then by risk-taking behaviours. This view of trust as a process allows us to explore the relationships linking more static components of the model. This thesis explores the relationship between trust belief and trust intention in Chapter 3. Chapter 4 examines the antecedents and outcomes of follower-perceived leader trust intention. After introducing the trust conceptualization this thesis draws on, the next section will introduce and review the key theoretical basis for this thesis.

2.2 Trust and Social Exchange Theory (SET)

Social exchange theory (SET) is a key theory drawn upon in trust research (Corbett et al., 2014) and it is also among the most influential theories in studying

organisational behaviour in general (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Blau (1964, p. 91) describes social exchanges as “*the voluntary actions of individuals that are motivated by the returns they are expected to bring and typically do in fact bring from others,*” which means that “*one person does another a favour and while there is an expectation of some future return, its exact nature is never specified in advance but must be left to the discretion of the one who makes it.*” Indeed, social exchange is a process in which obligations are generated from interactions between two parties (Emerson, 1976). Due to the uncertainty in this relationship, social exchange processes require trust between the parties (Blau, 1964). Social exchanges in the work setting can be manifested in a variety of ways, including as organisational support, leader-member exchange (LMX, i.e., between supervisor and subordinate), organisational commitment, team support, supervisory support, and trust (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Trust is key in social exchange relationships. Social exchange needs trust and trust happens in a social context (Lewis & Weigert, 1985).

In general, SET views the exchange between two parties or individuals as being driven by the benefits and costs of interactions. It posits that individuals exchange tangible (e.g., pay, necessary equipment, etc.) and intangible (e.g., trust, support) resources with one another. Flynn (2005) discusses three different forms of social exchange, of which the third type is directly relevant to this dissertation: a) negotiated exchange, b) generalized exchange and c) reciprocal exchange. Reciprocal social exchanges most typically occur between two members of a dyad (in contrast to generalized exchanges which are among multiple members of a social group). And unlike negotiated changes, which are discussed explicitly, reciprocal exchanges occur in a series of separate episodes over time and there is no direct discussion of whether, in what form, and when reciprocation will occur. Thus,

engaging in reciprocal social exchanges makes the giver vulnerable to the potential that he or she has given something of value away with an uncertain expectation of receiving something equally valuable in return. Apparently, trust process is a format of reciprocal social exchanges, where the giver is the trustor and the receiving party is the trustee. Then, it comes to the question – why people engage in reciprocal social exchange.

A variety of factors motivate parties engaging in social exchanges to keep them mutually reciprocal. These are described using a framework from Gouldner (1960), who discusses three different types of reciprocity: (a) reciprocity as a mutually contingent exchange; (b) reciprocity as a folk belief; (c) reciprocity as a moral norm. These factors help lay a foundation for the development of trust in social exchange relationships, and can help explain the obligation that a recipient feels towards the giver, and why people often reciprocate the acts of others even when it goes against their own self-interest (Berg, Dickhaut & McCabe, 1995). The reciprocal norms in social exchange theory explain the obligation that trustees feel towards the giving party (Blau, 1964), suggesting that people often reciprocate the acts of others even when it goes against their own self-interest (Berg, Dickhaut, & McCabe, 1995). The following will review the three types of reciprocity and their implications in leader-follower relationships.

Reciprocity as a contingent transaction. The concept of contingent transaction is built on the interdependence between the two individuals in an exchange relationship. In brief, interdependence denotes that “*outcomes are based on a combination of two parties’ efforts*” (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005, p. 876), which generate mutually contingent benefits (Gouldner, 1960). The mutual benefits might not continue if one

party exchanges less or even nothing because of a more powerful position or more resources (Gouldner, 1960), while the interdependence relationship will continue if the receiving party responds in kind (Gergen & Taylor, 1969). Thus, Blau (1964) indicates that interdependence underpins SET. Interdependence encourages cooperation and reduces betrayal (Molm, 1994).

Reciprocity as a folk belief. Gouldner (1960) describes reciprocity as a folk belief. It is the belief that non-reciprocating people will be punished, and reciprocating people will be rewarded if they keep the social exchange fair over the long term (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Lerner's (1980) *belief-in-a-just-world* is an example of this type of belief. Hence, *folk belief* regulates actors' behaviours in the social exchange process, thus decreasing destructive behaviours such as betrayal or taking advantage of the vulnerability of others.

Reciprocity as a moral norm. A norm is a standard or referent that represents behaviours people should do. People who follow reciprocity norms feel obliged to behave reciprocally after they have received something from another party (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Yet, reciprocity norms in social exchange entail uncertainty and risk because reciprocity is not certain and there is no knowledge of whether or when the other party will reciprocate (Lewicki & Bunker, 1995; Molm, Takahashi, & Peterson, 2000). The related uncertainty and risk entail trust development. All forms of social exchange and all stages of the trust process involve uncertainty and risk, both in the initial exchange stage and even in the later stage where the relationship is mature and there is a high level of mutual trust (Molm et al., 2000). Molm et al. (2000) find that trust is higher in reciprocal exchange relations than in negotiated exchange relations. This is because reciprocal exchange provides

an opportunity to demonstrate the importance of mutual trust for trust building. In the trust building process, a trustee's trustworthiness determines a trustor's willingness to be vulnerable. Trust happens when the trustor has faith that the trustee will not violate this vulnerability. (Chapter 3 further extends this theoretical discussion in the context of investigating the relationship of follower trustworthiness and supervisor trust intention in a social exchange context.)

Putting the previous points about the nature of social exchange relationships and the factors that help keep them mutually reciprocal directly into the context of the role of trust in supervisor-subordinate relationships, SET implies that if the trustee has a high reciprocity orientation, he or she will repay the trust received from the trustor with efforts to meet the trustor's expectations. In this dissertation, I argue that the exchange of trust (and perhaps other less tangible resources as well) in such relationships may involve additional processes that are not necessary when more tangible resources are exchanged. Specifically, the receiver of trust in a social exchange relationship may not be aware that trust has been extended, or at least not accurately perceive the extent of trust that is extended. Perceived trust, known as 'felt trust', might be a more direct trigger of reciprocity than the actual trust extended. For example, if a subordinate perceives that less trust has been extended by the supervisor than is actually the case, he or she will under-reciprocate, and conversely, a perception of more trust than has been offered will lead to over-reciprocation. Under-reciprocation is likely a more serious problem than over-reciprocation, as it threatens to start a downward spiral in the dyadic relationship. These ideas will be further discussed in Chapter 4, which examines the conditions under which followers are likely to experience greater felt trust, and how felt trust from the supervisor may

influence followers' self-assessment with resultant influence on their job performance.

In summary, this section has reviewed different forms of social exchange and different types of reciprocity, concluding with a brief discussion of SET and trust from both the trustor and trustee perspectives. More details are provided in sections 2.4 and 2.5, which respectively discuss SET and supervisor trust in the follower, and the application of SET to follower felt trust, but first section 2.3 will review the development of trust research in the organisational context over recent decades with emphasis on follower trust in the leader.

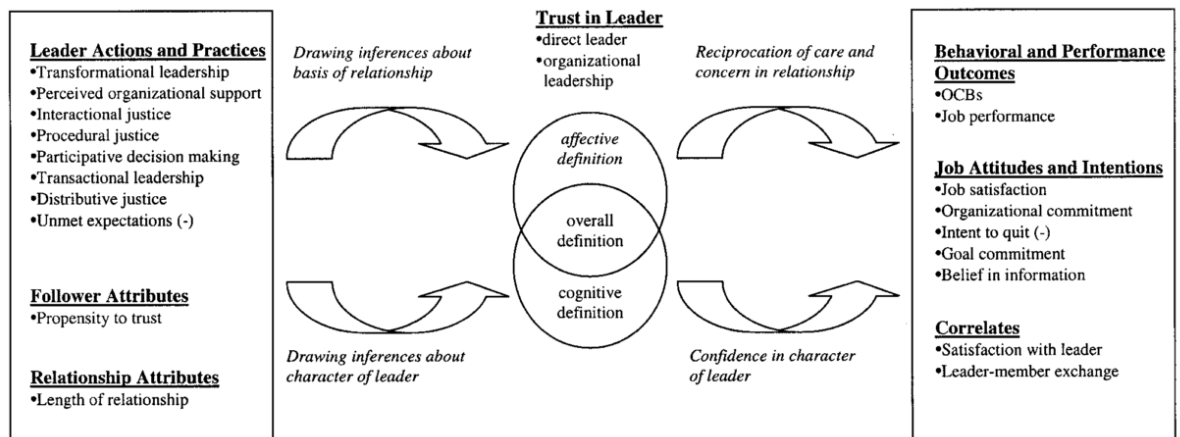
2.3 A brief review of trust in the organisational context

Most of the research on interpersonal trust in organisations investigates the antecedents and outcomes of different types and levels of trust, focussing on the individual, group and organisational levels, of which this thesis focuses on the individual level of trust. *Individual trust* is categorized into three types, according to the referent: (1) upward trust, involving trust in a direct supervisor or senior manager; (2) downward trust, involving supervisor or manager trust in subordinates; and (3) co-worker trust, i.e. trust in peers. Individual level trust will be the focus of the current dissertation, which investigates both upward trust and downward trust. The other two levels of trust in organisations (i.e., *group trust* and *organisational trust*) relate to higher levels of relationships, e.g., trust relationships within teams or by employees in their organisation; and trust between organisations. Thanks to the huge contribution of trust scholars, e.g., Colquitt et al. (2007), Dirks and Ferrin (2002), and Korsgaard et al. (2015), who have reviewed trust studies at different levels and with different referents, we can now understand trust better. In this section, I will

review and summarise their work to paint a general picture of current trust research findings.

Dirks and Ferrin (2002) reviewed studies of trust in leaders over the previous four decades, including the antecedents and outcomes of trust in direct leaders and organizational leadership. Figure 2.2 shows more details of their framework.

Figure 2.2 The framework of trust in leadership in Dirks and Ferrin (2002)



They distinguish between trust in the direct leader (individual level) and trust in the organisation (collective level) by discussing different predictors and outcomes related to these two different types of trust. For instance, interactional justice, procedural justice and participative decision-making have a stronger relationship with trust in the leader than with trust in the organization. In contrast, perceived organisational support has a stronger relationship with trust in the organisation than with trust in the leader (Dirks and Ferrin, 2002). Regarding the relationship with outcome variables, trust in leaders has a stronger relationship with job attitudes (job satisfaction and organisational commitment) and trust in the organisation has a stronger relationship with organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) and a

weaker relationship with job performance. Two theoretical mechanisms are proposed to support this argument: relationship-based trust and character-based trust.

The findings of Dirks and Ferrin's (2002) meta-analysis support most of the relationships proposed in the model shown in Figure 2.2. Their article was among the first to systematically review the relationship between trust and other concepts. Importantly, they also demonstrated that the strengths of relationships with trust varied depending upon the different trust referents. Their model and meta-analytic estimates provided subsequent trust scholars with a clear framework within which to address different levels or types of trust in organisations, and also shed light on the value of considering the difference between trust referents and the different mechanisms underpinning the trust process. Furthermore, their work provided guidance to organisations about developing different types of trust to obtain different organisational outcomes.

However, despite the unique contribution of Dirks and Ferrin's (2002) review of trust research, the conceptualization of trust in their study focusses on affective and cognitive aspects of trust. This approach limits Dirks and Ferrin's ability to examine trust as a process, that is, to examine the relationship between trustworthiness, trust, and risk-taking behaviours (as captured in the Dietz and Den Hartog (2006) model presented earlier and forming a basis for the current work). Colquitt et al.'s (2007) meta-analysis complements Dirks and Ferrin's review, and investigates the unique effects of ability, benevolence, integrity, and trust propensity on trust, together with the relationship between trust and trust outcomes, including risk-taking behaviour, task performance, OCBs, and counterproductive behaviour. They find ability, benevolence, integrity, and trust propensity have significant unique relationships

with both trust and with trust outcomes. Thus, trust partially mediates the relationship between perceived trustworthiness and trust outcomes. Colquitt et al. also examine the moderating effects of different trust referents such as leaders or colleagues.

As discussed previously, choosing to trust takes a leap of faith. According to Colquitt (2007), the unique effect of trust propensity might drive this leap. Trust propensity is *general* willingness to trust others. However, the argument for the driving effect of trust propensity is made on the basis of a meta-analysis that cumulates results from studies of trust in leaders and trust in colleagues. It is still worth examining the effect of trust propensity when followers are the referents (leader trust in the follower), since leaders are more powerful in the relationship and control more resources, which potentially makes their decision-making process with respect to trust different from that of followers.

The two trust reviews just summarised concentrate on unidirectional trust, which represents one individual's perceptions of another or of a collective target such as the organisation. However, trust relationships are bidirectional in that both parties involved need to trust and to be trusted in order to build a mutual trust relationship (Korsgaard et al. 2015). Hence, the third useful review this thesis introduces is one recently conducted by Korsgaard et al. (2015). They focus on the concept of dyadic trust, which refers to "*an emergent property of the dyad representing the pattern of trust between two parties*" (p. 48).

Korsgaard et al. (2015) reviewed three approaches to dyadic trust: reciprocal trust, mutual trust and asymmetric trust. The reciprocal trust approach examines individual-level trust relationships in which each individual is both a trustor and a

trustee. This method investigates trust as an interactive process in which trust by one individual in the other is influenced by perceived trust from the other. Using this approach, however, Dass and Kumar (2011) find that the trust levels of the two parties are not always reciprocated. The second approach to investigating bidirectional trust is mutual trust, in which the two individuals in the relationship share consensual levels of trust. This type of trust can vary from a mutually high level of trust to a mutually low level. However, this approach lacks empirical evidence. The third approach considers bidirectional trust as an asymmetrical property and examines the convergence and divergence between each party's trust in the other. Asymmetric trust varies between highly congruent trust, in which both parties are either high or low in their trust of each other, and highly incongruent trust, in which one party is high whilst the other is low. The difference between the three approaches to dyadic trust is further discussed in the follow-up study presented in Chapter 4, which empirically investigates the effects of congruence/ incongruence between follower trust in the leader and follower felt trust.

In summary, this section has reviewed three pieces of research that have made huge contributions to the trust literature by reviewing the past decades of trust research and giving direction to future research development. However,

2.4 The measurement of trust in quantitative studies

A lack of a common approach to trust measurement is one of the key issues that trust scholars face, and makes our understanding of the meaning, antecedents and outcomes of trust more complicated (McEvily & Tortoriello, 2011). However, trust measurement determines its conceptualization method. Thus, in this section, I will review five mostly cited trust measurement scales based on a review by McEvily and

Tortoriello (2011). I will then discuss the different methods to conceptualize trust in these five papers, and their empirical issues. At last, I will discuss the development of trust measurement in this thesis.

McEvily and Tortoriello (2011), who reviewed and assessed the state of trust measurement in organisational research. Different conceptualizations and trust measurement instruments make the findings from different trust studies difficult to compare. According to McEvily and Tortoriello (2011), it might be the case that different trust measurements capture different dimensions of trust, and the influence of these different dimensions varies when examining the relationships between trust and its outcomes or predictors. McEvily and Tortoriello identify five noteworthy measures of trust, specifically, those created by McAllister (1995), Currall and Judge (1995), Cummings and Bromiley (1996), Mayer and David (1999) and Gillespie (2003). Table 2.1 provides a summary of these five instruments in terms of their different trust conceptualization approaches, measurement dimensions and trust referents.

With their different approaches to conceptualizing trust and different choices of trust referents, each of the measurement scales has its limitations and fits different research purposes. For instance, empirical studies have raised concerns about the validity of McAllister's (1995) two dimensions of cognition- and affect-based trust, finding only a single factor solution in their data. Currall and Judge's (1995) instrument includes surveillance as a negative dimension of trust, which taps into distrust instead of trust. Cummings and Bromiley's (1996) organisational trust inventory concentrates on the transaction cost literature, which makes their instrument more applicable to studying the role of trust in negotiation and exchange

relationships. The instrument by Mayer and Davis, (1999) incorporates both trustworthiness and trust. Due to the item development process that involves theory reviews, field interviews and validity analyses, Gillespie's (2003) behavioural trust inventory (BTI) is generalizable to different organisational settings. In addition, it is the most appropriate instrument to measure willingness to be vulnerable, as it asks the respondents' intention to trust. Hence, the current thesis adopts Gillespie's instrument to capture supervisors' willingness and perceived willingness to be vulnerable. However, according to McEvily and Tortoriello (2011), the BTI omits the positive expectation element of trust. Hence, the follow-up study described in Chapter 3 develops a measure of an additional dimension of trust to complement Gillespie's instrument, thus capturing the leader's positive expectations of the follower.

However, previous trust scholars' interests have been in follower trust in the leader, trust amongst peers at the individual level, trust in senior management teams, or trust in organizations at the collective level. Therefore, our knowledge about trust by individuals who are at a senior level (leaders) in individuals who are at a junior level (followers) is relatively weak. The next section discusses important differences between leader-based trust and follower-based trust.

Table 2.1 A Summary of Noteworthy Trust Measurement Instruments

Measure	Conceptualization Approaches	Measurement Dimensions	Trust Referents (different levels)
McAllister (1995)	Willingness to be vulnerable Positive expectations	Cognition-based trust Affect-based trust	Peers among managers (interpersonal level)
Currall and Judge (1995)	Willingness to engage in trusting behaviours Lack of positive expectations	Open and honest communication Informal agreement Surveillance Task coordination	Individuals working across organizational boundaries (interpersonal level)
Cummings and Bromiley (1996)	Positive expectations Trust as a belief	Good-faith efforts Honesty in exchange Limited opportunism	Groups (collective level)
Mayer and Davis (1999)	Willingness to be vulnerable Positive expectations	Trustworthiness Trust	Top management team (individual level)
Gillespie (2003)	Willingness to be vulnerable Positive expectation	Reliance Disclosure	Leaders Peers (individual level)

2.5 The difference between leader-based trust and follower-based trust

In the current thesis, two different trust types are distinguished by different trust referents. *Leader-based trust* refers to followers' trust in their leaders, while *follower-based trust* refers to leaders' trust in their followers and particularly refers to direct supervisors' trust in their subordinates. Although Brower et al. (2000) have already argued that supervisor trust in subordinates is a different construct to subordinate trust in the supervisor, they do not underpin this argument with solid theoretical explanations. After reviewing literature related to follower trust in the leader in the last section, this section develops explanations for the difference between these two types of trust by grounding them in social identity theory.

With regard to the definition of trust, Mayer et al. (1995) suggest that trust is based on the expectations of the other party. The difference in supervisor and subordinate trust is likely to arise from the different trust expectations of each due to their different roles in the organisation. According to role theory, people hold expectations about their own behaviours and those of others based on their social positions (Biddle, 1986). This thesis will focus on identity-based role theory because this theory combines “*psychological (individual contributions) and sociological (organizational framework) perspectives*” (Welbourne, Johnson, & Erez, 1998, p. 542).

In line with social identity theory, scholars are concerned about the influence of a person's position in a social structure on his or her identity activation (Stets & Burke, 2000). Individuals view themselves as different from the others with whom they interact according to their relative roles (Stets & Burke, 2000). In addition, a role can be defined in terms of its relation to other roles (Stets & Burke, 2000) as is the case

of supervisors and subordinates. These people are the key partners involved in exchange relationships in an organization (Yammarino & Dansereau, 2002). The following discussion will focus on the nature of the exchange relationship between supervisors and subordinates from the different perspectives of these two parties.

From an economic exchange perspective, if supervisors and subordinates are assumed to be rational, to seek self-benefits, and to avoid risk and loss, then each party makes different investments in and expects different returns from the other to fulfil the exchange relationship. This relationship builds on mutual reinforcement and reciprocity based on common interests, which underlies giving and receiving between supervisors and subordinates (Yammarino & Dansereau, 2002). In general, supervisors expect a satisfactory performance from subordinates as a return for their investment in providing working resources, while subordinates basically expect a salary for providing a performance which satisfies their supervisors and is in line with their supervisors' preference (Fred Dansereau & Dansereau, 1995; Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, & Jacobs, 2000). Therefore, supervisors and subordinates expect different returns from each other, based on their role identities.

In addition to economic exchanges between supervisors and subordinates, the two parties also expect social support and social exchange. The support that subordinates expect from their supervisor is self-worth fulfilment (Fred Dansereau et al., 1995; Yammarino & Dansereau, 2002). Supervisors fulfil subordinates' self-worth by a) paying attention to the subordinate's individual needs and feelings; b) making the subordinate confident in their working abilities; c) showing individual support (Yammarino & Dansereau, 2002). There are three factors in subordinate self-worth: a) feeling safe to reveal personal things about themselves (Jones & Archer, 1976); b)

feeling inspired by the supervisor to do their best at work; and c) feeling safe to approach the supervisor if in need (Bandura, 1986a). Self-worth activates subordinate follower identity and also triggers a willingness to follow the supervisor (Wallis, Yammarino, & Feyerherm, 2011). This follower identity will in return motivate the subordinate to work hard.

From the supervisor's perspective, in addition to expecting performance from subordinates, supervisors might also expect those subordinates to be engaged in extra-role activities and to maintain high leader-member exchange relationships. According to leader-member exchange theory, supervisors expect committed and conscientious subordinates (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Deluga, 1994). That is, supervisors expect subordinates to have an obligation to reciprocate and also an emotional bond with them. Hence, based on economic exchange and social exchange theories, supervisors and subordinates have different expectations of each other, although both of them expect trust.

These different expectations of supervisors and subordinates in their exchange relationships underpin the necessity of studying subordinate-based trust. In fact, a focus on subordinate-based trust should make a unique contribution to trust theory development. This thesis will explore subordinate-based trust from two perspectives: that of the supervisor, i.e., supervisor trust in subordinates; and that of the subordinate, i.e., subordinate felt trust extended from the supervisor. The following two sections review the literature regarding these two areas.

2.6 Supervisor trust in subordinates

Graen and colleagues (Graen & Scandura, 1987; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) argue that the leader begins the relationship with the follower. The signals from the leader are

likely to be direct communication or a task for the follower (e.g., delegation) (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Therefore, it is plausible to assume that trust relationships in organisations start with a leader's intention. Surprisingly, there is little literature that concentrates on the trust extended from leaders to followers and the conditions under which supervisors are more likely to extend trust to their followers. To the best of my knowledge, only three scholars attempt to draw our attention to this particular form of downward trust, namely, Hakimi, Van Knippenberg and Giessner (2010), Werbel and Henriques (2009) and Zapata, Olsen and Martins (2013). These three pieces of research demonstrate the role of perceived subordinate trustworthiness in leaders' trust-related intentions and behaviours. They show (a) a positive relationship between perceived subordinate integrity and leader empowering behaviour (Hakimi et al., 2010), (b) a positive relationship between perceived subordinate ABI and both high-quality leader-member exchange relationships and supervisor delegation behaviours (Werbel & Henriques, 2009), and (c) a positive relationship between subordinate ABI and supervisor trust intention and felt obligation (Zapata et al., 2013).

However, none of these three works is without limitations. Hakimi et al. (2010) only include integrity in their model and omit the other two aspects of trustworthiness. Werbel and Henriques (2009) only concentrate on the leader-member exchange relationship and supervisor risk-taking behaviour. Moreover, the unidimensional measurement of supervisor trust intention in Zapata et al.'s (2013) study fails to capture the whole picture of supervisor trust intention, and is not the best instrument to measure trust intention according to the review in Section 2.3. These limitations of the current literature on supervisor trust in the subordinate highlight a need for a study that examines the relationship between perceived subordinate trustworthiness

and supervisor trust intention with a whole set of trustworthiness dimensions and a clear measurement instrument. Chapter 3 fills this research gap.

In addition to the ABI model which emphasizes the importance of ability, benevolence and integrity perceptions in determining trustworthiness assessments, trust scholars propose an ABI+ model containing more dimensions to capture trustee trustworthiness (Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006). Thus, two other vital factors – availability and receptivity – are proposed in this thesis to explain follower trustworthiness from a leader perspective. Trust builds on the willingness to be vulnerable, and being vulnerable in a social exchange relationship provides an opportunity for others to exploit resources and to take advantage (Emerson, 1976). Indeed, Scandura and Pellegrini (2008) find that trust is fragile even in high quality exchange relationships. Despite the risk of non-reciprocation or trust betrayal is low in these relationships, supervisors still engage in risk-taking behaviours such as delegation and empowerment (Schriesheim, Neider, & Scandura, 1998; Werbel & Lopes Henriques, 2009). In terms of delegation, in addition to subordinate ability Werbel and Henriques (2009) propose two other factors that reduce the supervisor's perceptions of vulnerability: (a) availability (ease of monitoring), and (b) receptivity (the degree to which subordinates comply with the supervisor's orders). Therefore, in Chapter 3, in addition to subordinate ABI, subordinate availability and receptivity are examined as antecedents to explore supervisor trust in subordinates. These two factors are based on the nature of the trust relationship between the supervisor and subordinate. Supervisor trust in the subordinate is mainly manifested as delegation and empowerment. Availability and receptivity of followers are two important factors for supervisors to consider in order to reduce their vulnerability. Hence, not only does subordinate ABI affect supervisor trust decisions, but so do factors that

reduce the supervisor's perceived vulnerability. A detailed discussion of the relationship between these factors is presented in Chapter 3.

2.7 Subordinate felt trust

The emerging research topic of *felt trust* refers to understanding a trust relationship from the trustee perspective by examining their perceptions of being trusted by another. As discussed in section 2.2, felt trust can activate reciprocity norms in social exchange processes and this activation underlies the positive effects of felt trust on employee work behaviours. In addition, identity theory suggests that an employee's felt trust can be regarded as perceived feedback from the leader about how well he or she is enacting the desired identity of a trustworthy follower. This feedback from the leader is crucial to the employee's social validation, i.e., the process through which employees seek reassurance about their identities from others (Ashforth & Schinoff, 2015; DeRue & Ashford, 2010). The argument proposed is that employees pursue trust from their supervisors in order to claim their self-identity as trustworthy subordinates, since holding identities that are valued by others is as important as holding identities that are valued by oneself (Baumeister & Tice, 1986). Therefore, perceived felt trust from supervisors is crucial for their followers.

The current felt trust literature provides insights into the significant role of employee felt trust in the workplace. For example, felt trust has been shown to have positive effects on employees' organisation-based self-esteem and job performance (Lau et al., 2008, 2014), positive effects on employee collective obligations and group performance (Salamon & Robinson, 2008), and negative effects on employee wellbeing due to an increased workload because of felt trust (Baer et al., 2015). The felt trust literature also identifies factors that influence followers' feelings of being

trusted, including leadership behaviours and value congruence (Lau et al., 2007). The following section reviews the current findings regarding the antecedents and outcomes of feeling trusted in organisations.

Antecedents of felt trust. Previous felt trust research scholars have identified two types of antecedents of felt trust: a) the similarity between leaders and followers, as captured by their demographic similarity and value congruence; and b) perceived leadership. The rationale for similarity effects is grounded in approaches such as social identity theory, which suggests that individuals self-categorize and are more likely to identify themselves with salient social groups with whom they share similar demographic attributes (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Additionally, Tsui and O'Reilly (1989) indicate that demographic differences lead to social distance in social exchange relationships. Thus, demographic difference is assumed to negatively correlate with subordinate felt trust. In support of this argument, Lau et al. (2007) find that when leaders and followers differ in age and education level, the subordinates feel less trust from the supervisor than when there is demographic similarity. Similarly, Williams (2016) examines the influence of age heterogeneity on felt trust at the team level and finds that demographic similarity is positively related to individual felt trust from peers.

With respect to the second type of antecedent of felt trust, according to Lau et al.'s (2007) empirical study, autocratic leadership negatively influences subordinates' felt trust via leader-member value congruence, while moral leadership positively relates to subordinates' felt trust. To the best of my knowledge, there are only two published empirical trust studies that concentrate on antecedents of felt trust, and only one of them (Lau et al., 2014) examines felt trust within leader-member relationships. Thus,

Lau et al. (2014) call for more research on proposing and examining predictors of subordinates' felt trust.

Outcomes of felt trust. Generally, the influence of felt trust on trustees has both positive and negative effects. In terms of positive effects, building on the discussion at the beginning of this section, Lau et al. (2014) found that follower felt trust from the leader positively affects follower in-role and extra-role job performance. They explain this influence as due to the increased level of follower organization-based self-esteem. Deng and Wang's (2009) empirical findings in the context of Chinese culture show that followers' felt trust stimulates their satisfaction with and loyalty to the supervisor. The findings of Salamon and Robinson (2008) support the argument that felt trust activates reciprocity norms. They find that follower collective felt trust activates follower *responsibility norms* and then positively influences group-level performance. These first three studies examine felt trust from a follower perspective at the individual or group level. Lau et al. (2007) shed light on the significance of the follower feeling trusted for leader effectiveness and team citizenship behaviours.

In contrast to these positive effects of felt trust, Baer et al. (2016) find that feeling trusted also has negative effect, such as emotional exhaustion due to a greater workload. Indeed, when leaders trust their followers, they are more likely to delegate responsibilities and decision-making authority to the followers (Mishra, 1996, cited in Baer et al., 2016). Thus, the trusted followers might receive more tasks than the untrusted ones and they believe that they should work harder and do more tasks. According to conservation of resources theory, the extra responsibilities the trusted followers take lead to emotional exhaustion as perceived high workload represents resource loss. In addition, the effect of felt trust on emotional exhaustion is enhanced

by follower *reputation maintenance concerns* (Baer et al., 2016). That is, if followers with high *reputation maintenance concerns* feel the need to main their present status and others' views on them. Hence, they make effort to keep being trusted by the leader and work harder, which in turn will lead to emotional exhaustion. Thus, felt trust can be a double-edged sword in organisations. However, with the acknowledgement of the negative effects, the current thesis will focus on the positive effect of follower felt trust.

In summary, this section has reviewed the key studies relating to felt trust. However, due to the limited number of empirical studies, our understanding of felt trust still remains at a superficial level. The theory of felt trust lacks consensus on a comprehensive and clear definition of the concept and an agreed measurement instrument. Furthermore, the answer to the question of whether felt trust is a process like the trust-building process is far from clear. More research efforts are needed to fill these research gaps. Chapter 4 will attempt to contribute to felt trust research by studying the antecedents and outcomes of felt trust. To some extent, it replicates previous findings, but it also makes unique theoretical and empirical contributions

3 CHAPTER 3 ANTECEDENTS OF SUPERVISOR TRUST IN SUBORDINATES

3.1 Introduction

As mentioned previously, trust in organisations can have different referents, including leaders, colleagues and subordinates. In spite of research calls from Colquitt et al. (2007), who indicated that previous trust studies had not answered the question of whether the factors influencing a trust relationship vary depending on whether the relationship is leader-based, colleague-based or subordinate-based, there is still a dearth of studies on subordinate-based trust (i.e. subordinates studied as trustees). In most existing organisational research on trust, the focus has tended to be on subordinates' trust in their supervisors or senior managers. However, many researchers in the area of trust in organisations have indicated that supervisors' trust in their subordinates also deserves further research (Brower et al., 2009; Colquitt et al., 2007; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Indeed, supervisor trust in subordinates can lead to high-quality interactions in which subordinates are motivated to both complete their tasks and make an effort to go beyond the basic requirements of their jobs (Brower et al., 2009). However, more empirical studies are required to extend our understanding of supervisor trust in subordinates (Brower et al., 2009). For example, despite evidence of the positive effects of supervisor trust in subordinates, little is known about the factors that can contribute to this type of trust. Therefore, the studies in this chapter focus on supervisor trust in subordinates, with the aim of shedding light on the antecedents and outcomes of this important type of trust in organisations.

Zapata et al. (2013) studied the influence of the three dimensions of subordinate trustworthiness – ability, benevolence and integrity (abbreviated to ABI in the following sections) – on supervisor trust in subordinates. Although they find that perceived subordinate benevolence and integrity are positively associated with supervisors' trust, in their study trust is studied as a unidimensional construct. McEvily and Tortoriello (2011), however, suggest that trust is a multi-dimensional construct. Therefore, it is important to further investigate the antecedents of trust as a multidimensional construct and its complex relationships with different trust antecedents. Consequently, the present study focuses on the antecedents of supervisor trust in subordinates, and specifically on how the antecedents of subordinate-based trust differ from trust related to other referents, taking into account the multi-dimensional nature of trust.

One antecedent of trust is trustworthiness. Mayer et al. (1995) propose that assessments of another person's trustworthiness, that is ABI, appear to explain trust in a trustee. Werbel and Lopes Henriques (2009) argue that the three dimensions tend to capture general trust conditions rather than conditions associated with specific types of trust. In order to define specific antecedents of supervisor trust, they investigate ten conditions originally developed by Butler (1991). Werbel and Lopes Henriques (2009) argue that three antecedents are specific to supervisor trust in subordinates when it comes to making a decision to delegate, namely (a) subordinate competence, i.e. the ability to finish the task (note that this antecedent overlaps with the ABI model), (b) subordinate availability (ease of monitoring), and (c) subordinate receptivity (the degree to which subordinates comply with supervisor instructions). However, Werbel and Lopes Henriques do not answer the question of whether these contextualized trust conditions are stronger predictors than general

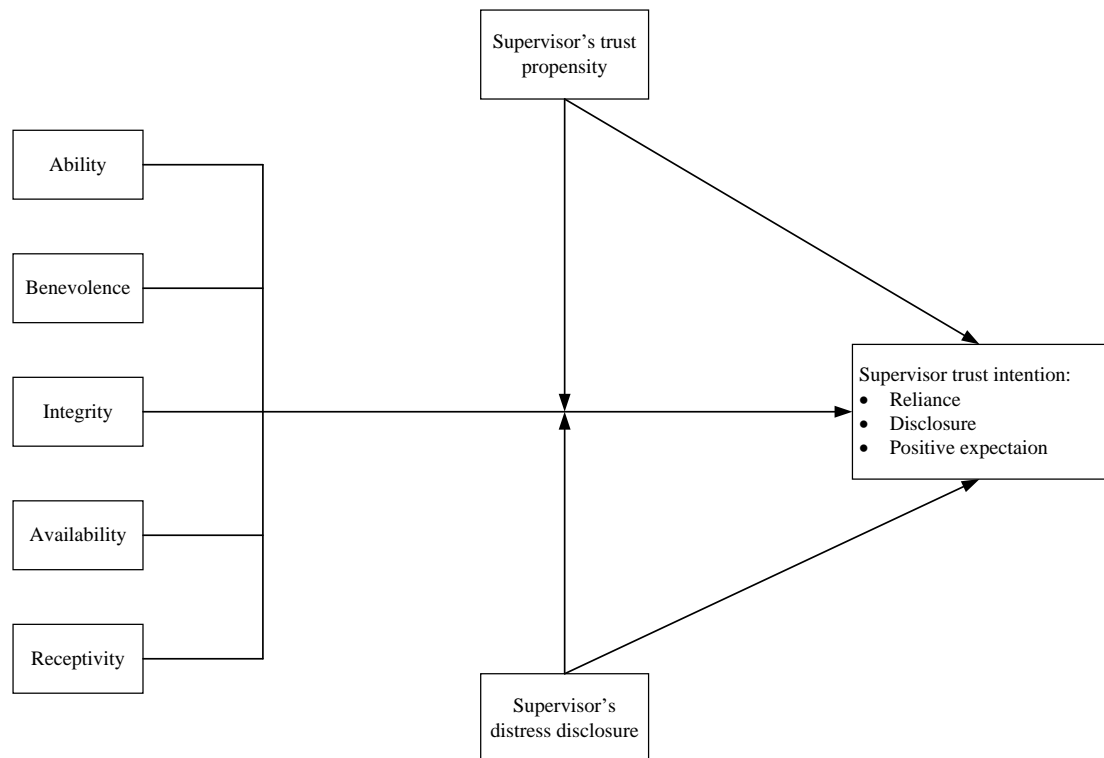
trust conditions – such as ABI – of supervisor trust intention. Therefore, the present study aims to fill this research gap by investigating both the antecedents associated with the general category of trustworthiness and also those with specific subordinate characteristics. By comparing the two categories of trust antecedents, this chapter attempts to further clarify which factors lead to supervisor trust in subordinates, and to extend our knowledge about trust from a relatively new perspective.

In addition to trustee characteristics that influence trustor trust intention, another important factor influencing this trust intention is the character of the trustor. This chapter proposes to capture trustor characteristics along two dimensions. The first of these dimensions is trustor trust disposition, or trust propensity, which refers to a trustor's general tendency to trust others (Colquitt et al., 2007; Gillespie, 2003; Mayer et al., 1995). The second dimension is trustor distress disclosure, which reflects the trustor's typical tendency to disclose “distressing thoughts, personal problems, and unpleasant emotions across time and situations” (Kahn & Hessling, 2001), and which relates to supervisor disclosure intention. This study treats both of these factors as important potential antecedents, and considers that both could have effects on trust and also moderate the strength of the relationship between other proposed antecedents and trust in subordinates. Figure 3.1 shows the study's conceptual model concerning the variables influencing the development of supervisor trust in a subordinate.

As Figure 3.1 shows, trust in subordinates is defined here as supervisor trust intention. This is a multi-dimensional construct consisting of reliance intention, disclosure intention and positive expectations. Reliance and disclosure are two dimensions that were proposed by Gillespie (2003) to study “willingness to be

vulnerable.” The reasons for using this trust construct have been discussed in Section 2.3. In addition to these two dimensions, supervisors’ positive expectations of subordinates are proposed as a third dimension of supervisor trust in subordinates, to respond to the call for trust research to focus on both the willingness to be vulnerable and positive expectations (McEvily & Tortoriello, 2011). Supervisors’ positive expectations of subordinates refer to the confidence in the subordinates that they would not violated the vulnerability or risks that the supervisors take. Including positive expectations in trust research is important since this factor is a significant component of Mayer et al.’s (1995) commonly used trust definition. In their trust measurement review, McEvily and Tortoriello (2011) find that the majority of trust studies (161 out of 207) treat trust as a unidimensional construct. Hence, to capture a complete picture of supervisor’s trust in the subordinate, this chapter adopts a multidimensional approach to investigating supervisor trust intention.

Figure 3.1 Conceptual model of the antecedents of supervisor trust in subordinates



A variable-oriented approach (e.g., a standard path or regression type model) will be used as an important first step towards understanding cause-effect relationships between trust antecedents, moderators and supervisor trust intention. However, the ability of a variable-oriented method to detect incremental effects of trust antecedents on supervisor trust intention is limited because this method makes a separate estimate of the unique effects of each of the predictors in the proposed set of antecedents in order to find the cause-effect connections associated with that predictor in the presence of the other predictors (Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2001). Hence, in addition to the variable-oriented approach to studying trust antecedents presented so far, the current chapter also considers potential intra-individual variation in the variables affecting perceived subordinate trustworthiness. This type

of approach – called a person-oriented approach – can identify meaningful subgroups of individuals who share similar patterns of a set of variables (Meyer, Stanley, & Vandenberg, 2013). Its use has been suggested (for example, by Chen, Lee, Chou, & Cheng, 2008 and Wu & Xu, 2012) to determine whether individuals come from different subpopulations in which the relations observed between dimensions may differ.

Consequently, this study additionally employs a person-oriented approach to explore different patterns of the five proposed antecedents of trust in subordinates shown in Figure 3.1, using latent profile analysis (LPA). By identifying subgroups who share similar patterns of the set of five trust antecedents, the person-oriented approach is superior to the variable-oriented approach as it allows for complex combinations among all the possible predictors at all the possible levels of each predictor (Aguinis, Gottfredson, & Wright, 2011), and can detect complex interactions between the predictors and their effects on the outcomes (Mayer & Sparrowe, 2013).

An example can illustrate the usefulness of this approach. There might be a pattern in which subordinates are perceived to be capable, benevolent and to have integrity but they are not in close proximity or compliant. In another pattern, subordinates are perceived as neither well-meaning nor having integrity, but are capable, compliant and easy to monitor, etc. Once different subtypes have been identified, whether and how these different patterns influence supervisor trust intention can be investigated, for example whether or not a supervisor puts more trust in subordinates who exhibit the first or the second pattern, etc. Furthermore, the influence of different patterns on the supervisor-rated job performance of subordinates will be studied. For example, ratings of in-role job performance might be high when employees are perceived as

high in ability, or ratings of organisational citizenship behaviour towards individuals (OCBI) may be high when they are perceived to be high in benevolence but low in ability and integrity. Thus, different patterns might differentially predict performance-related outcomes. To the best of my knowledge, no previous studies have employed this person-oriented approach in the study of trustworthiness or the influence of differences among subgroups on individual trust intention.

In sum, the two research questions this chapter addresses are as follows. First, what are the antecedents of supervisor trust in subordinates? Second, what patterns of perceived subordinate trust characteristics are associated with greater supervisor trust intention? To answer these questions, two studies were conducted, and are described in this chapter. The first study was a preliminary study, designed to initially and partially test the conceptual model on a small sample. It contains the five trust antecedents and two dimensions of supervisor trust: reliance and disclosure intentions. Another purpose of the preliminary study was to carry out an exploratory LPA analysis to identify potential patterns capturing different high and low levels of subordinate trust-related characteristics. Based on the results of the preliminary study, a follow-up study was designed to extend the preliminary research by testing the whole conceptual model as shown in Figure 3.1. Compared with the preliminary study, two leader characteristics – leader trust propensity and leader distress disclosure – and the third dimension of supervisor trust in subordinates – positive expectations – are added. Furthermore, in the follow-up study supervisors are asked to evaluate their subordinates' job performance – both in-role and extra-role performance – in order to investigate how types of subordinates (based on patterns) differ with respect to ratings of subordinate job performance.

In summary, the material presented in this chapter makes both theoretical and empirical contributions to trust research. First, it contributes to the organisational literature on trust by broadening our understanding of subordinate-based trust relationships. It proposes different trust antecedents and examines the relationships between these antecedents and supervisor trust intention to identify follower characteristics that influence leader trust intentions. Second, it goes beyond traditional variable-oriented methods and employs a person-oriented typology approach to identify types of perceived subordinates and how they relate to supervisor trust intentions. One aim of this study is to move trust research into new territory, where trust researchers focus on different patterns among individuals and how the patterns influence trust.

3.2 Theoretical Frameworks and Hypotheses

3.2.1 General antecedents – perceived subordinate trustworthiness

Trustworthiness is a perception held by trustors that specific others (trustees) are worthy of their trust (Morrow, Hansen, & Pearson, 2004). The concept of trustworthiness was first proposed by Mayer et al. (1995) to understand why a trustor has a greater or lesser degree of trust in a trustee. After reviewing previous studies of factors that lead to trust, Mayer et al. (1995) found three factors that explain a large portion of trustworthiness: perceived trustee ability, benevolence and integrity. *Ability* refers to the trustor believing the trustee to be capable in some specific domain; *benevolence* reflects the trustee's perceived intention in the relationship – whether he wants to do good to the trustor; and *integrity* means that the trustor accepts a set of principles that the trustee adheres to. These three factors have been

widely examined and found to be predictors of trust (see the meta-analyses by Colquitt et al., 2007 and by Dirks and Ferrin, 2002).

Hence, a supervisors' assessment of the ability of a subordinate explains whether it is likely that the subordinate 'can do' an action (Colquitt et al., 2007); a perception of benevolence links supervisors and subordinates with an emotional attachment, that of caring for the wellbeing of the supervisor (Colquitt et al., 2007); and integrity represents a long-term predictability that subordinates will do a desired action (Lind, 2001). Colquitt et al.'s (2007) meta-analysis of general interpersonal trustworthiness finds that each of these factors uniquely, strongly and significantly relates to trust (defined as risk-taking behaviour).

3.2.2 Specific antecedents – perceived subordinate availability and receptivity

Werbel and Lopes Henriques (2009) argue that ABI is too general when it comes to different types of trust. Studying trust relationships in an organisation is complex since people have different roles in organisations. Individuals may work as subordinates, supervisors or senior managers, etc. According to role theory, different behaviours that individuals engage in are determined by the requirements associated with their roles (Merton, 1957). Different roles have different requirements. Hence, the factors that contribute to trust intention may vary according to different trust referents, so the factors that account for general interpersonal trust intention, like ABI, might not be sufficiently predictive of more specific types of trust, such as supervisor trust in subordinates. Therefore, in addition to the general trustworthiness of the subordinate, specific aspects of the follower need to be considered when studying trust from a supervisor perspective, i.e., subordinate availability and receptivity.

However, it is argued here that the *general* trustworthiness antecedents (ABI) and *specific* supervisor-subordinate trust relationship antecedents (i.e. availability and receptivity) might complement each other. Conceptually, ability, benevolence, integrity, availability and receptivity capture different aspects of the attributes of subordinates. When building a trust relationship, a supervisor treats the subordinate both as a trustee and also as a follower. Therefore, the general characteristics of a trustee and the specific trust antecedents of a follower might together affect a supervisor's willingness to be vulnerable. For both types of concept – i.e. general and specific trustworthiness – this study uses the term 'supervisor trust antecedents' to describe the various factors relevant in different trust situations.

A research design combining general and specific characteristics of trustees is in line with arguments put forward in previous research. Dietz and Den Hartog (2006) argue that there are different inputs in a trust-building process, including trustee characteristics, motives and the nature of the trustee-trustor relationship. To some extent, ABI might represent the trustee's character and motives, and availability and receptivity may depict the nature of the supervisor-subordinate relationship. Hence, it is anticipated that these five factors will have positive relationships with supervisor trust intention. As introduced previously that supervisor trust intention consists of three dimensions, the hypotheses to be tested are as follows:

Hypothesis 1: The subordinate's (a) ability, (b) benevolence, (c) integrity, (d) availability and (e) receptivity are positively related to supervisor reliance intention.

Hypothesis 2: The subordinate's (a) ability, (b) benevolence, (c) integrity, (d) availability and (e) receptivity are positively related to supervisor disclosure intention.

Hypothesis 3: The subordinate's (a) ability, (b) benevolence, (c) integrity, (d) availability and (e) receptivity are positively related to supervisor positive expectations of the subordinate.

3.2.3 Supervisor trust characteristics

As previously mentioned, the characteristics of trustors may also play a role in the organisational trust process. One of the characteristics this chapter focuses on is the supervisor's trust disposition, which has also been termed the trustors' trust propensity or pre-disposition (Colquitt et al., 2007; Dietz & den Hartog, 2006; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Mayer et al., 1995). Trust disposition is "a stable personality trait reflecting a person's willingness to trust others in general, across situations" (Gillespie, 2003, p.15). Mayer et al. (1995) point out that the characteristics of a trustor influence his or her perceptions of a trustee's trustworthiness. Trustors who have a high trust disposition tend to believe that others are honest, well-intentioned and easy to trust, while trustors with a low trust disposition tend to be sceptical and cynical, and to assume that others may be dishonest and have bad motives (Costa & McCrae, 1992). This argument is supported by empirical findings (Conlon & Mayer 1994; Kiffin-Petersen & Cordery, 2003). However, other researchers find less evidence for a direct effect of trust propensity. Therefore, propensity to trust might only have an influence on initial trust formation when there is little evidence or knowledge of the trustee (McKnight & Cummings, 1998). For example, some researchers find a decline in the influence of trustor propensity when knowledge of ABI has increased with interactions between the trustor and trustee (Johnson-George & Swap, 1982). In addition, Dirks and Ferrin (2002) only find a weak correlation between trust propensity and subordinate trust in supervisors. These studies use trustor trust disposition as a direct predictor in their trust models (see the meta-

analysis by Colquitt et al., 2007). However, although Mayer et al. (1995) argue that trust propensity by itself cannot lead to trust in a *particular* trustee, Colquitt et al. (2007) find that after controlling for trustee ability, benevolence and integrity, trustor trust propensity still affects trust.

In addition to its direct effect on trust, some scholars suggest that the trustors' trust disposition interacts with the three ABI dimensions of trustworthiness (e.g. Mayer et al., 1995; Gill, Boies, Finegan, & McNally, 2005) to predict trust. That is, the relationship between trustworthiness and trust is stronger when the trustor has a tendency to trust others, while the relationship will be weaker when the trustor is inclined to not trust others. Bernerth and Walker (2009) suggest that leaders who have high trust propensity are prone to believe in the general goodness of their followers, that is, are likely to believe the followers are trustworthy and have willingness to be vulnerable. Indeed, in social exchange relationships, this type of leaders are more likely to exchange intangible goods (Bernerth & Walker, 2009), i.e., to relying on sharing sensitive information with the follower to exchange with follower in-role and extra-role performance.

Combining the above arguments, this study examines both the direct and the interactional effects of supervisors' trust disposition on the supervisor's trust *intentions*, considering the outcomes of reliance intention, disclosure intention, and positive expectations separately.

Hypothesis 4: Supervisor trust propensity is positively related to supervisor reliance intention; it will also moderate the relationships of the subordinate's perceived (a) ability, (b) benevolence, (c) integrity, (d) availability and (e) receptivity with supervisor reliance intention. The relationships of these five antecedents with

supervisor reliance intention will be stronger when the supervisor has high trust propensity.

Hypothesis 5: Supervisor trust propensity is positively related to supervisor disclosure intention; it will also moderate the relationships of the subordinate's perceived (a) ability, (b) benevolence, (c) integrity, (d) availability and (e) receptivity with supervisor disclosure intention. The relationships of these five antecedents with supervisor disclosure intention will be stronger when the supervisor has high trust propensity.

Hypothesis 6: Supervisor trust propensity is positively related to supervisor positive expectations; it will also moderate the relationships of the subordinate's perceived (a) ability, (b) benevolence, (c) integrity, (d) availability and (e) receptivity with supervisor positive expectations. The relationships of these five antecedents with supervisor positive expectations will be stronger when the supervisor has high trust propensity.

Another important characteristic of trustors that particularly relates to their disclosure intention is distress disclosure. Distress disclosure is a concept that was developed from general self-disclosure. Following Pennebaker (1997), it focuses on the tendency to disclose distress information about oneself. Distress disclosure and disclosure because of trust are distinct. The former is a more stable trait in a person, while the latter varies according to the trustee. However, these two factors are correlated. According to Gillespie (2003), individuals disclose sensitive information about themselves to a person they trust. In the workplace, in addition to personal beliefs and values, this includes personal issues that affect the work or negative feelings or frustration about the work, or even work-related problems. This shared

information relates to distress that individuals are experiencing. Hence, when supervisors have a high distress disclosure trait, they are more likely to disclose themselves in a trust relationship with their subordinates.

In addition to the direct effect of supervisor distress disclosure, the current chapter also examines the effect of the interaction of this supervisor characteristic with other proposed supervisor trust antecedents. Supervisors who are generally inclined to disclose stress to others find themselves more likely to confide in subordinates who they believe to be trustworthy regarding work-related pressure and problems than supervisors who are more likely to conceal pressure inside themselves. That is, the relationship between perceived subordinate trust-related antecedents and supervisor disclosure intention is stronger when the supervisor finds it easier to disclose pressure and problems to others. Hence, supervisor distress disclosure can also be considered a moderator. This leads to the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 7: Supervisor distress disclosure is positively related to supervisor disclosure intention; it will also moderate the relationship of the subordinate's perceived (a) ability, (b) benevolence, (c) integrity, (d) availability and (e) receptivity with supervisor disclosure intention. The relationship of supervisor distress disclosure with supervisor disclosure intention will be stronger when the supervisor has high distress disclosure.

3.2.4 A Multidimensional Profile Model of subordinate trust characteristics

To address the research questions, in addition to a variable-based approach this study also adopts a person-oriented approach. A person-oriented approach aims to understand the effect of a totality of interacting dimensions (Foti, Bray, Thompson, & Allgood, 2012). Trust antecedents are considered here as consisting of five distinct

components, resulting in a multidimensional profile model of trust antecedents of supervisor trust intention. Each trust antecedent profile can be viewed as a unique latent construct underlying observed patterns of prevalent combinations of the five constituent dimensions. These patterns, or profiles, are assumed to capture the interactions between a set of variables within a person (Bergman, 2000).

The two groups of factors of follower trustworthiness, i.e., the general ABI and the context-specific factors, like availability and receptivity are proposed to influence a leader's trust intention. To understand the typology of followers, this chapter first merely considers the multidimensional profiles of followers' ABI, and then considers the profiles of the five factors of followers' trust characteristics. Therefore, the multidimensional profile model of subordinates' general ABI will be first discussed. This will be followed by a further discussion of the profile model of subordinates' five trust characteristics. When Mayer et al. (1995) proposed the three ABI dimensions, they also discussed the interrelationships among the three dimensions, but only from a follower's perspective. They posited that trustworthiness is a continuum. According to them, it is possible that a trustee can be deemed to have high integrity but might lack knowledge and ability. In the same way, a trustee can be perceived as very capable but not well-intentioned and without integrity. In addition, Colquitt et al. (2007) treat the three trustworthiness factors as consisting of two components: trustee ability and trustee attributes (comprised of benevolence and integrity). Consequently, we can assume that ability varies more independently of the other two factors than they do with each other.

Supervisor trust intention would be expected to vary according to these latent profiles. Regarding supervisor reliance intention, which reflects supervisors'

willingness to rely on subordinates' work-related judgements, skills and ability to handle important issues on the supervisor's behalf (Gillespie, 2003), subordinates who are perceived to be high in all three aspects of trustworthiness and also subordinates who are perceived as high in capability but lower in benevolence and integrity would be expected to be trusted by the supervisor, as indicated by high reliance intention. Regarding disclosure intention, which is supervisors' willingness to make themselves vulnerable by sharing sensitive information with subordinates when they are perceived as well-intentioned, caring about the supervisor's welfare and not being inclined to take advantage of negative information received from the supervisor, subordinates who are perceived to be high in all three aspects of trustworthiness and also those high in benevolence and integrity but not necessarily high in ability would be expected to be trusted by the supervisor, as indicated by high disclosure intention. Finally, a supervisor might have high expectations of those subordinates who show a pattern of being high on all three ABI dimensions. (If a subordinate is capable but lacks benevolence or integrity, the supervisor will still not have high expectations for specific desired actions, even though the subordinate is capable of performing them.)

Hypothesis 8: Ratings for supervisor reliance intention will be higher for those profiles characterized by high ability; ratings for supervisor disclosure intention will be higher for those profiles characterized by a combination of high benevolence and high integrity; ratings for supervisor positive expectations will be higher for profiles characterized by medium to high scores on all three of the ABI dimensions.

Different latent profiles might also have an influence on how supervisors evaluate subordinate job performance. It is assumed that when subordinates are perceived as

capable but not necessarily benevolent or possessing integrity they might be perceived as having better in-role job performance than subordinates who are perceived as possessing benevolence and integrity but lacking expertise. However, the situation might be different for OCBI and OCBO. If a subordinate lacks benevolence and integrity, the supervisor might assume the subordinate will not show concern about others (OCBI) or the organisation (OCBO). Based on these arguments, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 9: Ratings for subordinate in-role job performance will be higher for those profiles characterized by high ability; ratings for subordinate extra-role performance will be higher for those profiles characterized by a combination of high benevolence and high integrity.

In addition to the three aspects of subordinate trustworthiness, subordinate availability and receptivity are also proposed as antecedents of supervisor trust in subordinates. Compared to the three factors in subordinate trustworthiness, which are more related to personal attributes, these two characteristics of subordinates are more work-related. Hence, variation in these two factors might be different from variation in the three factors in subordinate trustworthiness when they are rated by supervisors. That is, when considering the five antecedents at the same time, the variation in ABI might be similar but availability and receptivity might vary independently. For example, subordinates may be perceived as high in ABI but medium to low in availability and receptivity, or high in ABI and availability but medium to low in receptivity, etc. Therefore, different patterns are expected regarding the five antecedents of supervisors' trust in the subordinate.

Again, it is assumed that the different profiles might affect supervisor trust intention and supervisor ratings of subordinate in-role job performance and OCB. When supervisors have the intention of relying on subordinates and if the variation in perceived subordinate ABI follows the same pattern, the supervisor might have a higher intention of relying on subordinates who are perceived as high in ABI and availability but not necessarily high in receptivity, since the supervisor will tend to rely on a subordinate who is close and who is around when needed. Supervisors might find it easier to disclose to subordinates who are believed to be trustworthy (high in ABI) and high in receptivity, since receptivity can be a sign of a good relationship between the supervisor and the subordinate. The influence of the latent profiles on supervisor ratings of subordinate in-role job performance will follow the argument on supervisor reliance intention, while the variation in supervisor ratings of subordinate OCB is assumed to be similar to the variation in supervisor disclosure intention. However, supervisors might have high expectations of subordinates who are high in all five trust antecedents, since supervisor positive expectations include expectations of subordinate working capabilities and also factors related to disclosure. This leads to the following:

Hypothesis 10: Ratings for supervisor reliance intention and subordinate in-role job performance will be higher for those profiles characterized by high ABI and high availability; ratings for supervisor disclosure intention and subordinate extra-role performance will be higher for those profiles characterized by a combination of high ABI and high receptivity; ratings for supervisor positive expectation will be higher if all the five antecedents are high.

3.3 Preliminary study

3.3.1 Methodology

3.3.1.1 Sample and Procedures

The participants were graduates with a master's degree from a business school at a university located in the United Kingdom. An online survey link was sent to them through the university's alumni network, with a reminder email sent after one month. I reminded the respondents that participation was voluntary, anonymous and that confidentiality was assured, and that their answers would only be used for research purposes. 800 graduates were contacted and informed about the opportunity to participate in the study. They were sorted into two different surveys through a screening question asking whether their working role was as a supervisor or as a subordinate. A total of 171 supervisors (75% male and 25% female) participated in the study about supervisor trust in subordinates. (The remaining 208 respondents completed the subordinate felt trust survey for the preliminary study in Chapter 4 but were excluded from the present study because they did not self-identify as supervisors.) Hence, the response rate in total was 47.3% and the current study represents 21.38% of the persons initially contacted.

Nearly 54.4% of the supervisors were aged between 28 and 37; 19.3% of them were aged between 38 and 47; 11% between 18 and 27; and 6.7% were older than 48. 21.8% had worked in their current organisation more than 1 year but less than 2 years, 27.1% for more than 2 years but less than 5 years, 23.5% had worked in the organisation for more than 5 years, 15.3% for more than 10 years, and the remaining participants had worked in their organisation for less than 1 year. In addition, 25% of the subordinates rated by the supervisors had already worked for the supervisor

for more than 2 years but less than 5 years, 20% for more than 1 year but less than 2 years, 10% for more than 10 years and the rest for less than 1 year.

3.3.1.2 Measures

Ability, *benevolence* and *integrity* were measured using Mayer et al.'s (1995) trustworthiness scale. The participants were asked to assess one of their direct subordinates in terms of ability (6 items), benevolence (5 items) and integrity (6 items) using a 6-point response scale (1=strongly disagree; 6=strongly agree). Sample items included "The subordinate has much knowledge about the work that needs to be done" for ability, "The subordinate is very concerned about my welfare" for benevolence and "Sound principles seem to guide the subordinate's behaviour" for integrity.

Receptivity and *availability* were measured using Butler's (1991) four-point scale. Sample items included "The subordinate is willing to listen to my ideas and input" for receptivity and "I could easily observe this subordinate's work activities if needed" for availability. A 6-point response scale (1 = Strongly disagree; 6 = Strongly agree) was used. The scales have been assessed for homogeneity, reliability and validity using several samples. Good construct validities of the scale are reported in a study by Butler (1991), and Werbel and Henriques (2009) suggest that both supervisors and subordinates can use the scales to assess the other party's trustworthiness.

Supervisor trust intention was measured using the 10-point scale developed by Gillespie (2003). A sample reliance item is "To what extent do you rely on this subordinate's work-related judgments?" A sample disclosure item is "To what extent do you share your personal feelings with this subordinate?" The responses are made

using a 6-point response scale (1 = Not at all; 6 = Very much). The validity of this scale was supported by interview data, quantitative survey data and cross-sectional, longitudinal and matched-dyad quantitative data (Gillespie, 2003).

3.3.1.3 Analytical approach

Descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations (SD), Cronbach's alpha and zero-order correlations of the variables) were analysed for the observed variable scale scores, using SPSS. Then, *Mplus* 7.2 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2015) was used to assess the construct validity of measurement models using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to check the *a priori* assumptions about the dimensionalities of the five perceived subordinate characteristics and the two components of supervisor trust intention. Structural equation modelling was used to test the proposed hypotheses. Since the research design combines both variable-oriented and person-oriented methods, there are two subsections in the hypothesis-testing subsection. In the variable-oriented results part, path analysis was used to examine the relationships between the antecedents and supervisor trust in the follower. In the person-oriented results part, latent profile analysis (LPA) was employed to identify latent profiles among the subordinate perceived trust-related characteristics. LPA is a statistical method which tests mathematical models of latent responses that categorize observed individuals into groups of common responses (Chou, Sibley, Liu, Lin, & Cheng, 2015). The variables were sample-mean-centred for the interpretation. After the patterns have been identified, the BCH method and an auxiliary model were adopted to estimate the different distal outcome models (Vermunt, 2010, 2014). The BCH method evaluates the means of a continuous distal outcome variable across the latent profiles identified in the last step. By using AUXILIARY in Mplus, the latent profile

model is not affected after including the distal outcome variables. The analysis followed the syntax in Mplus Web Note: No.21 (Asparouhov & Muthén, 2015).

3.3.2 Results

3.3.2.1 Descriptive Statistics

Table 3.1 summarizes the means, standard deviations, reliability estimates and bivariate correlations among the study variable scale scores. Coefficient alphas are reported along the diagonal. The internal consistency reliabilities of all the variables are acceptable for research purposes, with values ranging from .66 to .89. The zero-order correlations are all in the expected direction, and provided preliminary support for the hypotheses, except for the non-significant but negative correlation of trust disposition with disclosure intention. The five factors of trust antecedents, which are ability, benevolence, integrity, availability and integrity, are significantly correlated with each other with values ranging from .29 to .67. Supervisor reliance intention is significantly and strongly correlated with perceived subordinate ability ($r=.70$, $p<.05$), benevolence ($r=.60$, $p<.05$) and integrity ($r=.61$, $p<.05$), and more weakly correlated with availability ($r = .28$, $p < .05$). However, supervisor disclosure intention is significantly but moderately correlated with benevolence ($r = .40$, $p<.05$) and integrity ($r = .31$, $p<.05$), and weakly correlated with ability ($r = .17$, $p < .05$) and availability ($r = .28$, $p < .05$).

Table 3.1 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Measured Variables, Preliminary Study

	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1 Lgender	1.25	0.43	--										
2 Lage	2.26	0.85	-.21*	--									
3 LTenure	4.10	1.37	-.14	.31*	--								
4 RTenure	3.56	1.48	-.11	.29*	.44*	--							
5 Ability	4.75	0.75	-.09	.08	.17*	.02	(.77)						
6 Benevolence	4.71	0.83	-.08	.15	.16*	.09	.56*	(.86)					
7 Integrity	4.59	0.78	-.02	.16*	.05	.04	.54*	.67*	(.82)				
8 Availability	4.54	0.91	.03	-.12	.04	-.09	.29*	.42*	.34*	(.75)			
9 Receptivity	4.97	0.63	-.08	.03	.16*	.05	.62*	.75*	.54*	.46*	(.77)		
10 Reliance	4.20	1.03	-.09	.29*	.22*	.20*	.70*	.60*	.61*	.26*	.52*	(.89)	
11 Disclosure	3.20	1.24	.12	.09	.16*	.09	.17*	.40*	.31*	.28*	.25*	.40*	(.88)

Note: L = Leader; R = Relationship * The correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

3.3.2.2 Construct validity examination

Spector (1994) indicates that construct validity examination is necessary in a cross-sectional self-report research design. As introduced previously, CFA was used to compare the baseline 7-factor model – comprised of the hypothesized latent constructs for ability, benevolence, integrity, availability, receptivity, reliance intention and disclosure intention – with alternative models that use a smaller number of factors to explain the variance in the same set of indicators.

The baseline measurement model had poor model fit, according to Hooper, Coughlan, and Mullen's (2008) criteria, $\chi^2(413) = 784.56$, $p < .001$, CFI = .87, RMSEA = .073, SRMR = .071. Thus, a modified CFA model was specified following rules proposed by Kline (2011) and Rigdon, (1995), based on model modification indexes provided by Mplus. The modification indexes indicated several extremely high values suggesting the addition of correlated indicator uniquenesses. Such correlations occur when the two indicators share something in common beyond the variance explained by their loadings on the same latent construct(s) but which is not explicitly represented in the model (Kline, 2011). Any model modification needs a clear and well-founded interpretation (MacCallum, Roznowski, & Necowitz, 1992). Hence, when deciding whether to free parameters to allow correlated error variances, I considered the following three criteria: whether the modifications (a) were theoretically interpretable, (b) resulted in a statistically significant parameter estimate, and (c) maintained the integrity of the focal latent construct, that is, error correlations were not allowed across indicators of two different factors. Three pairs of error correlations met these criteria. The first of these was for the correlation of the errors for receptivity item 3 (This subordinate listens to my ideas and input) and receptivity item 2 (This subordinate mostly accepts my suggestions and

explanations), $r = .55$, $p < .01$. The second correlation was between the error variances for reliance item 2 (...rely on this subordinate's task-related skills and abilities) and reliance item 1 (...rely on this subordinate's work-related judgments), $r = .27$, $p < .01$. Finally, the third error correlation was between the error variances for integrity item 2 (This subordinate tries hard to be fair in dealing with others) and integrity item 3 (Sound values and principles seem to guide this subordinate's behaviour), $r = .31$, $p < .01$. After including these correlated errors, the modified CFA model yielded acceptable model fit according to all criteria except for the statistically significant chi-square statistic, $\chi^2(410) = 709.75$, $p < .001$, $CFI = .90$, $RMSEA = .065$, $SRMR = .065$. The chi-square of the modified model was significantly smaller than the classic CFA model, $\Delta\chi^2(3) = 74.84$, $p < .01$; and had a higher CFI ($\Delta CFI = 0.03$), lower $RMSEA$ ($\Delta RMSEA = .006$) and lower $SRMR$ ($\Delta SRMR = .006$). Hence, the modified model, which was used for further analysis, performed better than the original CFA model.

After modifying the measurement model to achieve an acceptable level of fit, the next step was to specify alternative CFA models of varied dimensionalities and assess discriminant validity amongst the latent by statistically comparing them. The results are shown in Table 3.2. There are two parts to the table. The first part shows the model fit statistics for each CFA model. The second part reports the results of model comparisons using chi-square difference tests. Each model in the set of 6-factor CFA models (Model 2 to Model 11) combined two of the five trust antecedents into a single factor to test whether the five factors were all distinct constructs. The additional CFA models were as follows: (a) a model with all the trust antecedents loading on a single factor (Model 12); (b) one combining the two

domains of supervisor trust intention into one factor (Model 13); and (c) one combining all the measures into a single factor (Model 14).

Chi-square difference tests and changes of incremental fit indices for model comparisons (baseline model and alternative models) revealed that the baseline model fit the data significantly better than the remaining models, with the exception of the chi-square difference test comparing Model 7 with the baseline model. This test had $\Delta\chi^2(6) = 9.55, p > .05$. Model 7 specified a single factor with loadings on both the receptivity and benevolence indicators. The non-significant chi-square test result for the comparison with the baseline model (which modelled these as two separate factors) suggested that receptivity and benevolence did not demonstrate discriminant validity in the current sample. Looking at the actual items measuring these two constructs, the similarities became obvious: while one construct is about accepting the supervisors' input or complying with the supervisors' orders, and the other about the general good intentions of subordinates, there was still considerable overlap between the items. This can be interpreted as benevolence by supervisors when they find subordinates follow their orders. Therefore, my strategy to deal with this measurement issue was to drop the receptivity variable from the model, based on the consideration that benevolence has been examined and supported in most of the empirical trust literature, and is a construct that captures both apparent and implicit subordinate well-meaning in the relationship.

In sum, a 6-factor model was found to provide the best fit to the data after examining construct validity. The model included four trust antecedent factors (perceptions of subordinates' ability, benevolence, integrity and availability), and two outcome variables (supervisors' reliance intention and disclosure intention). The 6-factor

model demonstrated an acceptable model fit, $\chi^2(472) = 544.19$, $p < .00$; $CFI = .91$; $RMSEA = 0.06$; $SRMR = 0.07$, with no need to include correlated uniquenesses after dropping the receptivity indicators. In this final, 6-factor model, the quality of the measurement was also supported by statistically significant factor loadings for all indicators, with standardized values ranging from .62 to .88. The intercorrelations of the latent variables are reported in Tables 3.3. As shown in the table, the intercorrelation between benevolence and availability was very high .92, $p < .01$, which might lead to multicollinearity between these two variables. However, the four predictors were still all included to examine the hypotheses since the measurement model was supported.

Table 3.2 Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis of The Measurement Models, Preliminary Study

Measurement Model	$\chi^2(df)$	$\Delta\chi^2(\Delta df)$	<i>RMSEA</i>	<i>CFI</i>	<i>SRMR</i>
(1) Hypothesized 7-factor model	709.749**(410)	--	.065	.900	.067
(2) 6-factor model [combines ability and benevolence into 1 factor]	857.123**(416)	147.374**(6)	.079	.848	.073
(3) 6-factor model [combines ability and integrity into 1 factor]	819.836**(416)	110.087**(6)	.075	.861	.072
(4) 6-factor model [combines ability and receptivity into 1 factor]	819.187**(416)	109.438**(6)	.075	.861	.071
(5) 6-factor model [combines ability and availability into 1 factor]	780.135**(416)	70.386**(6)	.072	.875	.075
(6) 6-factor model [combines benevolence and integrity into 1 factor]	759.149**(416)	49.400**(6)	.069	.882	.067
(7) 6-factor model [combines benevolence and receptivity into 1 factor]	718.769**(416)	9.020(6)	.065	.896	.065
(8) 6-factor model [combines benevolence and availability into 1 factor]	738.904**(416)	29.155**(6)	.067	.889	.068
(9) 6-factor model [combines integrity and receptivity into 1 factor]	736.152**(416)	26.403**(6)	.067	.890	.067
(10) 6-factor model [combines integrity and availability into 1 factor]	783.285**(416)	73.536**(6)	.072	.874	.070
(11) 6-factor model [combines receptivity and availability into 1 factor]	783.285**(416)	73.536**(6)	.072	.874	.070
(12) All independent variables combined into 1 factor	1797.85**(416)	1088.101**(34)	.134	.534	.280
(13) 6-factor model [combines reliance and disclosure into 1 factor]	1040.12**(416)	330.372**(6)	.094	.785	.090
(14) All factors combined into 1 factor	2732.56**(416)	2022.81**(47)	.171	.218	.327

Table 3.3 Intercorrelations between Antecedent Variable Latent Constructs for the Preliminary Study

	2	3	4	6	7
1. Ability	.66**	.62**	.73**	.78**	.16
2. Benevolence		.82**	.92**	.69**	.46**
3. Integrity			.64**	.74**	.39**
4. Availability				.59**	.27**
5. Reliance					.43**
6. Disclosure					---

** $p < .01$.

3.3.2.3 Tests of Hypotheses

Variable-oriented approach. To test the statistical significance of the hypothesised paths (hypothesis 1 and hypothesis 2), I employed structural equation modelling (SEM). Given that most measures of the type used in the current study include measurement error, SEM models employing latent variables are better suited to testing the hypothesised model than path analysis (Schreiber, Nora, Stage, Barlow, & King, 2006). The structural portion of the estimated SEM model is displayed in Figure 3.2. This model showed an acceptable overall model fit, $\chi^2(309) = 544.19$, $p < .001$; $RMSEA = 0.07$; $CFI = 0.91$; $SRMR = .07$. However, the values of the standardised path coefficients, from benevolence to disclosure and from availability to disclosure, exceeded the value of 1, as Figure 3.2 shows. These improper estimates were probably due to the multicollinearity of availability with benevolence.

Hence, another alternative SEM model was estimated. This model included only the effects of perceived subordinate ABI on the two domains of supervisor trust intention (i.e., availability was deleted from the model). The new SEM model is displayed in Figure 3.3. This model yielded acceptable model fit indices $\chi^2(309) = 544.19$, $p < .001$; $RMSEA = 0.07$; $CFI = 0.91$; $SRMR = .07$. The standardized path coefficients in

this model all had valid values, varying in magnitude between 0 and 1. As proposed in Hypothesis 1, perceived subordinate ability and integrity had significant effects on supervisor reliance intention, $\beta = .55, p < .01$ and $\beta = .30, p < .01$, respectively. But contrary to Hypothesis 1, benevolence did not significantly relate to supervisor reliance intention. Consistently with Hypothesis 2, perceptions of subordinate benevolence had a significant effect on supervisor disclosure intention, $\beta = .57, p < .05$. However, contrary to Hypothesis 2, although the effect of ability was statistically significant, its effect on supervisor disclosure intention was negative rather than positive $\beta = -.29, p < .05$, and the effect of integrity, although positive, was not statistically significant. The R-squares of the two latent dependent variables were 0.77, $p < .01$, for supervisor reliance intention and 0.34, $p < .01$, for supervisor disclosure intention.

Figure 3.2 Structural Regression Model Showing the Standardized Effects of Four Perceived Subordinate Trust Antecedents on Supervisor Trust Intentions for the Preliminary Study

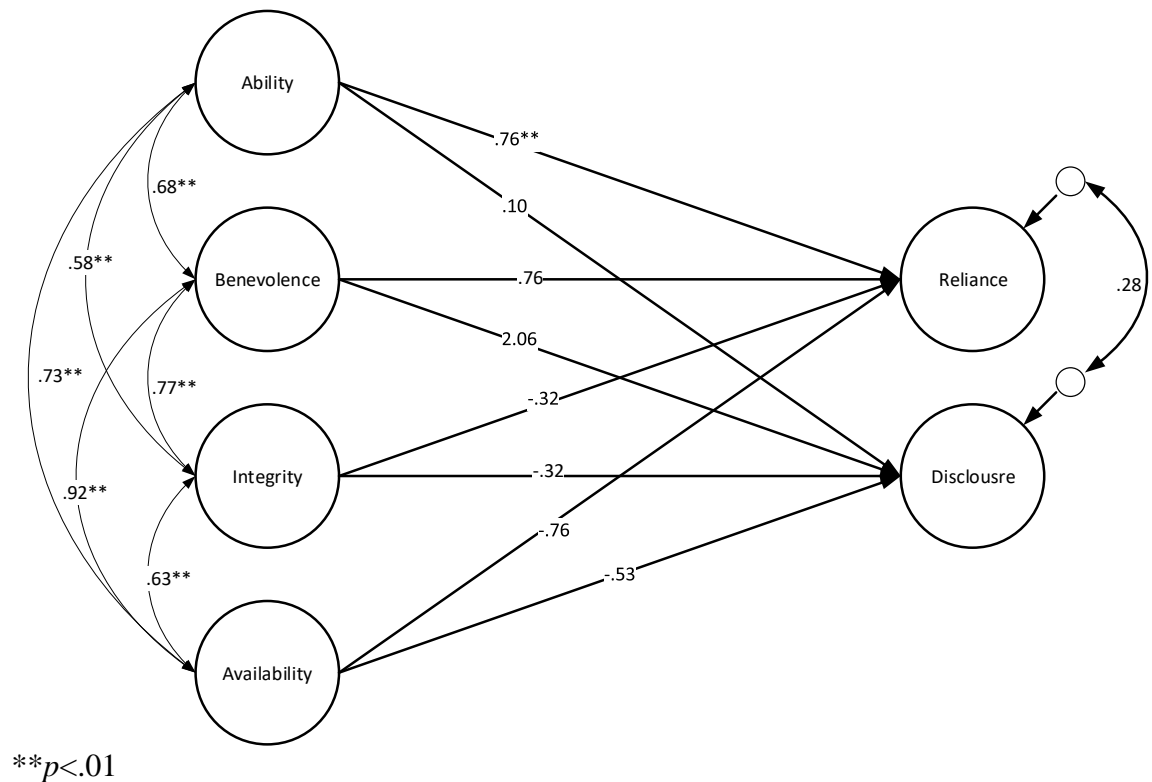
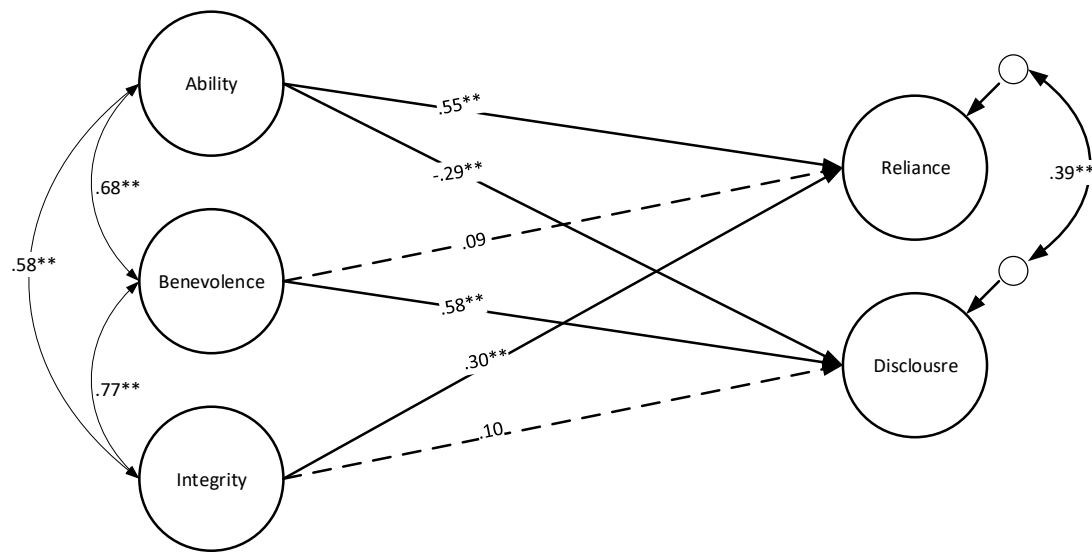


Figure 3.3 Structural Regression Model Showing the Standardized Effects of Perceived Subordinate Trustworthiness (ABI) on Supervisor Trust Intentions for the Preliminary Study



Note. The dotted lines indicate non-significant paths; solid lines indicate significant paths. ** $p < .01$.

In summary, considering the construct validity and multicollinearity issues that arose in the preliminary study, the final model contains only three distinct subordinate trustworthiness factors. Therefore, hypothesis 1 and hypothesis 2 are partially supported. That is, perceived subordinate ability and integrity positively related to supervisor reliance intention, and benevolence positively related to supervisor disclosure intention.

Person-oriented approach. Latent profile analysis (LPA) was conducted using *Mplus* to identify subpopulations with differing patterns of perceived subordinate trustworthiness based on relative values for ability, benevolence, and integrity. Table 3.4 presents the fit statistics for seven different LPA models, ranging from a two-profile solution to an eight-profile solution. One of the main issues related to LPA is determining the optimal number of profiles. According to Nylund, Asparouhov, and Muthén (2007), the commonly used criteria for determining the number of profiles

are the Bayesian information criterion (BIC), the Akaike information criterion (AIC) and the entropy index. These are employed together with the theoretical interpretability of a given profile solution. AIC and BIC are based on the maximum likelihood estimates of model parameters to select the most parsimonious and correct model (Holmes & Bronk, 2011). In interpreting these three indices, smaller values of AIC and BIC of a profile solution suggest a better fit (Posada, Buckley, & Thorne, 2004). A higher value for entropy represents good model prediction (Magidson & Vermunt, 2004). Comparison of these model fit statistics for the five LPA models indicated that the five-profile and six-profile solutions both fit the data well.

To determine which one of these two solutions fits best, a more rigorous method was employed, i.e., a three-step approach based on the Lo-Mendell-Rubin test and a bootstrapped likelihood test using TECH11 and TECH14, implemented in Mplus software (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2012). I followed the three steps suggested in Mplus Web Notes, No. 14 (Tihomir Asparouhov & Muthén, 2012). These are: 1) replicating the best loglikelihood for $k-1$ and k classes in the real data; 2) adding TECH11 (LMR test) to test the $k-1$ class model against the k class model, using the correct distribution of 2 times the loglikelihood difference; 3) adding TECH14 (BLRT test) to test the $k-1$ class model against the k -class model using bootstrapping to give the true distribution of 2 times the loglikelihood difference. The results of the LMR and BLT tests are shown in Table 3.5. The p-values for testing the 5-profile solution against the 6-profile solution were not statistically significant in both the LMR and BLRT tests, which revealed that the 6-profile solution was not significantly better than the 5-profile solution. Hence, the 6-profile solution was rejected. When comparing the 4-profile solution and the 5-profile solution, the p-value was insignificant in the LMR test, but it was significant in the BLRT test, with

100 successful bootstrap draws. In conjunction with the conceptual foundation of the different profiles of ABI, the 5-profile solution was chosen.

Table 3.4 Model Fit of Different Profile Solutions in the Preliminary Study

Profile solution	Parameters	Log-likelihood	BIC	AIC	Entropy
Two	10	-537.102	1125.621	1094.204	0.813
Three	14	-502.597	1077.178	1033.194	0.809
Four	18	-492.144	1076.838	1020.288	0.829
Five	22	-485.183	1083.483	1014.367	0.841
Six	26	-480.530	1098.742	1017.059	0.832
Seven	30	-477.571	1109.392	1015.142	0.852
Eight	34	-474.349	1123.514	1016.698	0.791

Note: LPA = latent profile analysis; BIC = Bayesian information criterion; AIC = Akaike information criterion.

Table 3.5 LMR and BLRT Statistics Comparing Different Profile Solutions in the Preliminary Study

Comparison	LMR			BLRT		
	2(Δ LL)	df	p	2(Δ LL)	df	p
4-profile model vs. 5 profile model	13.92	4	>.05	13.92	4	<.05
5-profile model vs. 6 profile model	5.31	4	>.05	5.31	4	>.05

After determining the number of profiles, the next step was to compare the different patterns of latent means associated with the five profiles. Figure 3.4 illustrates the means for the five-profile model and reports the proportions of the latent profiles. The two most prevalent profiles were those with a pattern of uniformly high scores (Profile 4, 31.3%), and uniformly medium scores (Profile 5, 48%), across the three trustworthiness variables. Subordinates who were perceived to score low on all three dimensions represented Profile 1 (8.7%). These three profiles showed little variance at the within-profile level. In contrast, Profile 2 (4.1%) and Profile 3 (7.7%) were characterized by varied scores for perceived subordinate ability and perceived

subordinate benevolence and integrity. The subordinates in Profile 2 were perceived to possess high ability but relatively lower benevolence and integrity. The pattern of scores was reversed in Profile 3 (7.7%), where subordinates were perceived to be relatively low in ability but higher in benevolence and integrity. This five-profile model supported the exploratory assumption about the different profiles of followers' ABI. The identified profiles were named based on the characteristics of each profile identified, of untrustworthy subordinates for Profile 1, capable subordinates for Profile 2, well-meaning subordinates for Profile 3, trustworthy subordinates for Profile 4, and trustable subordinates for Profile 5.

Figure 3.4 Means and Proportions of 5-profile Solution for LPA, Preliminary Study

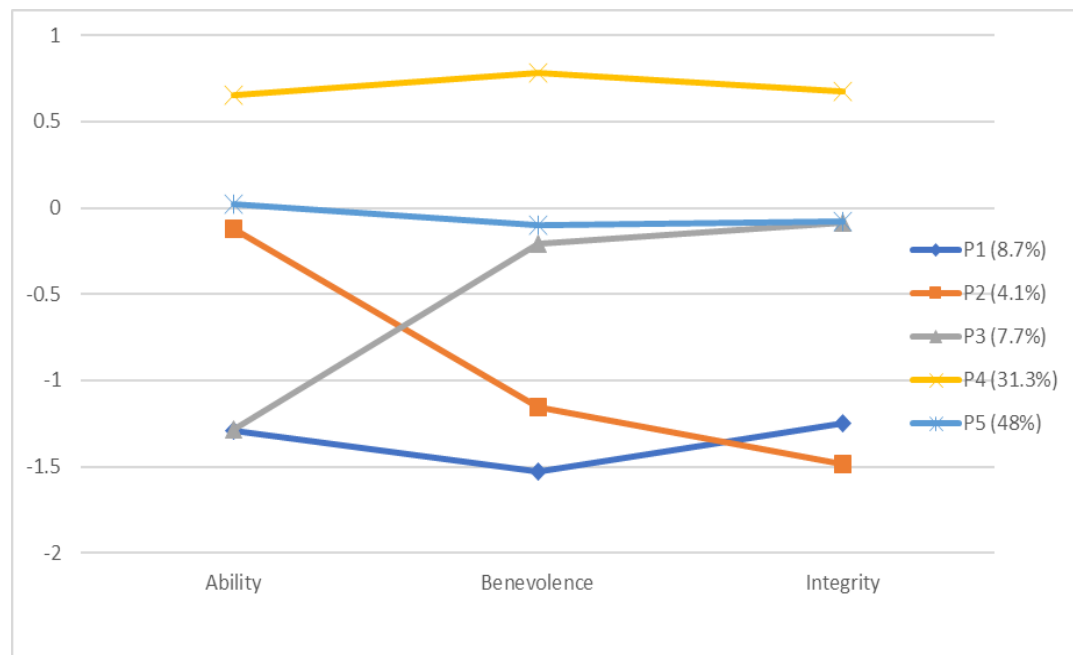


Table 3.6 Means and Standard Deviation of Supervisor Trust Intentions in Different Profile Groups in the Preliminary Study

Trust Intention	Profile	Mean	SD
Reliance	1 Untrustworthy subordinates	2.74 ^a	.19
	2 Capable subordinates	3.08 ^a	.31
	3 Well-meaning subordinates	3.09 ^a	.22
	4 Trustworthy subordinates	5.11 ^b	.12
	5 Trustable subordinates	4.14 ^c	.10
Disclosure	1 Untrustworthy subordinates	2.55 ^a	.24
	2 Capable subordinates	1.99 ^a	.57
	3 Well-meaning subordinates	3.32 ^b	.27
	4 Trustworthy subordinates	3.76 ^b	.20
	5 Trustable subordinates	3.09 ^{ab}	.15

Note. For each trust intention variable, the letter superscripts for the means indicate sets of means that do not significantly differ from each other.

Table 3.6 displays the means and standard deviations of the supervisor trust intention ratings in different profile groups. The means of supervisor reliance intention were high in Profile 4 ($M = 5.11$) and Profile 5 ($M=4.14$). The ratings for capable subordinates ($M = 3.08$) and well-meaning subordinates ($M = 3.09$) were nearly the same. Regarding supervisor disclosure intention, the BCH method and an auxiliary model were adopted to estimate the different distal outcome models (Vermunt, 2010, 2014). The results are presented in Table 3.6 which indicated by the superscripts. For supervisor reliance intention, the ratings for capable subordinates (Profile 2) and well-meaning subordinates (Profile 3) were higher than for untrustworthy followers (Profile 1), but the differences were not statistically significant. The ratings for capable subordinates and well-meaning subordinates were nearly the same. Trustable subordinates had substantially and significantly higher ratings than capable subordinates. For supervisor disclosure intentions, the ratings for well-meaning subordinates ($M = 3.32$) were higher than for trustable followers ($M = 3.09$) but

lower than for trustworthy followers ($M = 3.76$), although the differences in the ratings were not statically significant. However, supervisors had the least intention to disclose with capable followers ($M = 1.99$), who were perceived as high in ability but low in benevolence and integrity. The ratings were even lower than that for untrustworthy followers ($M = 2.55$), who were perceived as low in all three dimensions of ABI, although the difference was not statistically significant.

3.3.3 Discussion of the preliminary study

The findings from 171 supervisors indicated that there might be a construct overlap of the two specific trust antecedents of receptivity and availability with perceived general subordinate trustworthiness (ABI). Specifically, receptivity and benevolence seemed to measure similar constructs, according to the comparison of nested CFA models. Receptivity refers to compliance with the supervisor's order and acceptance of working input from the supervisor, which might also indicate that the subordinate is concerned about the supervisor's interests (Werbel & Lopes Henriques, 2009). In other words, to some extent supervisors who had experienced their subordinates complying with their orders and accepting their advice were likely to claim that the subordinates were well-meaning and had a positive orientation towards them. Another overlap was that availability was found to be highly correlated with benevolence. However, considering that the participants in the current study shared the same educational background, these two issues need further assessment with a larger sample and participants with different backgrounds before drawing a strong conclusion.

In addition to the findings using variable-oriented research questions, five subgroups of participants were found who shared similar patterns of perceived trustworthiness,

based on a person-oriented research method. LPA indicated that the trustable subordinate profile, with mid-range scores on all three dimensions of ABI, was most prevalent. The second most prevalent profile as perceived by supervisors was the trustworthy subordinate profile, with high scores on all the ABI dimensions. These two profiles included nearly 80% of the participants. The other three profiles were untrustworthy, well-meaning and capable subordinates. Ability was found to vary independently of the other two dimensions – benevolence and integrity. This finding is in line with Colquitt et al.'s (2007) argument that ability is more domain-specific, while benevolence and integrity are evaluated globally across domains. A subordinate might have professional sets of working skills or capabilities but lack benevolence and integrity, and, vice versa, a subordinate might possess benevolence and integrity but have no capability regarding the job tasks. Again, considering the exploratory nature of the preliminary study, further research is needed before firm conclusions can be drawn.

Furthermore, the latent profiles were found to significantly differ regarding their effects on reliance and disclosure supervisor trust intention. For supervisor reliance intention, trustworthy subordinates and trustable subordinates had significantly higher ratings than other groups; capable subordinates had slightly higher ratings than well-meaning subordinates, but the difference was not significant. However, supervisor ratings regarding capable subordinates and well-meaning subordinates were not found to be significantly different to those for untrustworthy subordinates. That is, the supervisors are only willing to rely on subordinates who are perceived as high and moderate in all the dimensions of their trustworthiness; not on subordinates who are perceived as capable but not well-meaning or well-meaning but incapable. Whereas, with regard to supervisor disclosure intention, except for trustworthy

subordinates who had high scores on all the dimensions of trustworthiness, the ratings for well-meaning subordinates who had low scores for their working capabilities were the second highest, a little higher than for trustable subordinates. It is important to address the low ratings for capable subordinates, who had low scores for benevolence and integrity. In other words, the supervisors were likely to have disclosure intention if they found the subordinates were benevolent, honest and morally principled, even if they were perceived to be only moderately capable. It is noticeable that the supervisors had the least disclosure intention to capable subordinates, probably because of the risk that they might use sensitive information shared with them against themselves. Moreover, due to the sensitive nature of disclosure, supervisors might also feel afraid to share their pressure or incapability with capable subordinates, who, after all, might be future competitors.

There are several limitations of the current study that need further consideration in the follow-up study. The first issue is about the measurement of supervisor trust in subordinates. McEvily and Tortoriello (2011) suggest that trust is a multi-dimensional construct and most trust research focuses on trustors' willingness to be vulnerable. However, little attention has been paid to the other important components of positive expectations. Indeed, there is little trust research so far that covers both trust dimensions. Hence, positive expectations need to be considered to fill this research gap in order to capture multi-dimensional trust jointly with willingness to be vulnerable. When the supervisor has a willingness to rely on the subordinate, he or she might expect that the subordinate will not make his or her job more difficult (McAllister, 1995) and will not disappoint him or her. In addition, when the supervisor confides in the subordinate about work problems or negative feelings, the supervisor might expect that the subordinate will not take advantage of any

information he or she has shared and keep personal issues secret if necessary. The subordinate will respect the supervisor's personal beliefs if the supervisor discloses to the subordinate.

The second issue is the small R-square of supervisor disclosure intention. This issue needs to be addressed in the follow-up study. That is, there might be more factors that need to be considered to explain the variance in supervisor disclosure intention. Another important factor in the trust-building process that was missing in the preliminary study is supervisor (trustor) trust characteristics, which have been identified as influential in the trust building process by Dietz and den Hartog (2006; see also Mayer et al., 1995). Hence, in the follow-up study two aspects of supervisors' trust characteristics are studied: supervisor trust propensity and distress disclosure.

A third limitation of the preliminary study was the small sample size for the LPA procedure. Tein, Coxe and Cham (2013) suggest that a sample size of 250 is the smallest size required for reliably estimating a 5-class LPA model. Hence, enlarging the sample size to investigate and draw conclusions from LPA on subordinate trustworthiness and supervisor trust intentions is needed in the follow-up study.

The final issue that has not been dealt with in the preliminary study is an investigation of the influence of latent profiles on supervisor ratings of subordinates' job performance, including in-role job performance and OCB. The follow-up study includes these factors to examine the distinct ratings of job performance for different latent profiles to further study the influence of such profiles.

3.4 Follow-up study

Following the discussion above and the need for development and extension of the preliminary study, the follow-up study extends the preliminary study in several ways:

- a) by including supervisor positive expectations to measure supervisor trust in subordinates; b) by including supervisor trust disposition and distress disclosure; and
- c) by including subordinate job performance rated by the supervisor.

3.4.1 Methodology

3.4.1.1 Sample and Procedures

Participants were recruited by a panel company, Respondi. The respondents were paid £1.8 for completing a short survey about their opinions on one of their supervisees. The questionnaire link was sent by Respondi to their participant pool. The criteria for participants in this study were that they worked in the United Kingdom, were aged between 18 and 65, and supervised at least two followers. 1266 supervisors were recruited to complete the survey and 568 (45%) of them met the criteria for inclusion in the study. The average age of the supervisors in the sample was 44 years ($SD = 10.21$). They had worked in their current organisation for an average of 14.23 years ($SD = 9.42$) and approximately 51% of them were male and 49% were female. 23.7% of the respondents worked in service sector, 12.3% in industry, 12.7% in education, 11.2% in retail, and the remains in other. 52.4% of them worked in an organisation which had more than 250 employees, 25.5% of them in an organisation having more than 50 but less than 250 employees and the rest in small organisations having less than 50 employees.

Since the study investigated interpersonal trust, it was necessary to randomly pick one of the participating supervisors' subordinates as the focus of the trust ratings. Therefore, participants were asked to list initials for up to five of followers they were supervising and then choose the follower coming up to the middle initial; if they listed two, three or four initials, they were asked to pick the second person as the referent when they answered the questionnaire.

3.4.1.2 Measures

The measures and format were identical to those used in the preliminary study. The new constructs used in the follow-up study are as follows.

Supervisor positive expectations was measured using a six-item scale which was self-developed to measure supervisor trust in subordinates. This new measurement scale was created based on the trust definition from Mayer et al. (1995) discussed previously, and focused on measuring supervisors' general positive expectations of the subordinate that he or she would not exploit the vulnerability and would provide expected behaviours. The items are "This subordinate will not disappoint me." "This subordinate will try his/her best to help me if I ask." "This subordinate will not make my job more difficult." "This subordinate will keep my personal issues secret if I share them with him or her." "This subordinate will not take advantage of the information I have shared with him/her." "This subordinate will respect my personal beliefs." A seven-point response scale (from 1 = extremely unlikely to 7 = extremely likely) was used. This instrument has very good internal consistency, Cronbach $\alpha = .93$.

Supervisor trust disposition was measured using eight items taken from Mayer and Davis (1999). This construct was developed to measure general supervisor trust

intention. Sample items are “One should be very cautious with strangers” (reversed item), and “Most experts tell the truth about the limits of their knowledge.” A six-point response scale (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree) was used.

Supervisor distress disclosure was measured using Kahn and Hessling's (2001) 12-item distress disclosure index (DDI) to measure supervisors' general distress disclosure tendency. Sample items are “When I feel upset, I usually confide in others,” and “I prefer not to talk about my problems (reversed item).” A 6-point response scale was used with scale anchors ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 6 = strongly agree.

Subordinate job performance was measured in terms of three factors rated by the supervisor: in-role job performance, OCBI and OCBO. In-role job performance was measured using the seven-item scale from Williams and Anderson (1991). OCBI and OCBO were both measured using eight-item scales from Lee and Allen (2002). Sample items are “This subordinate adequately completes assigned duties” for in-role job performance; “This subordinate assists others with their duties” for OCBI; and “This subordinate defends the organisation when other employees criticise it” for OCBO. A 7-point Likert scale was used with scale anchors ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree for in-role job performance; and from 1 = never to 7 = always for OCBO and OCBI.

3.4.2 Data screening

Data screening was conducted twice, before any other data analysis and again after the preliminary data analysis. The main purpose of the first-round data screening before the data analysis was to assess the quality of individual responses to identify any careless respondents. Standard deviations of the measurement items were first

computed to identify and drop those respondents who completed the survey using only one response value overall and those who only gave one response value for all the items for the five main predictors (ability, benevolence, integrity, availability and receptivity, i.e., those whose responses showed a standard deviation of zero). In this step, the sample size was reduced from 569 to 548 and the preliminary data analyses were conducted using this sample. However, when calculating the scale score values for the focal factors it was found that the value for benevolence ($M = 3.52$) was much lower than the other predictors. For ability, $M = 4.71$, for integrity, $M = 4.64$, for availability, $M = 4.60$ and for receptivity $M = 4.88$. Further diagnosis was necessary to provide insight into the benevolence construct. Although Cronbach's Alpha was $\alpha = .89$ for benevolence, it could be increased to .91 when deleting item 2 ("This subordinate would not knowingly do anything to hurt me"). On a closer inspection of the four items for benevolence, different response patterns were found. There was a small group of respondents whose answer to benevolence item 2 was inconsistent with their answers to the three other items and so the following procedure was used to resolve the issue.

First, for each participant, the mean and standard deviation of the three other benevolence items were calculated. The mean value was used to calculate the discrepancies between item 2 and the three other items. If the difference (the absolute value after subtraction) was higher than 2 (excluding 2), the respondents were treated as potentially inconsistent. At the same time, if the standard deviation of the other three items was less than 1, the respondents were grouped as inconsistent respondents ($N = 28$). The strategy for resolving respondent misunderstanding of the particular item was to treat their answers to that item as a missing value. After

completing this procedure, the mean score for the benevolence scale was 4.12 (SD = 1.16) and Cronbach's α increased from .89 to 0.91.

Above all, the first-round data screening was completed. The second round of data screening will be presented after the preliminary results.

3.4.3 Results

3.4.3.1 Preliminary results

Table 3.7 displays the means, standard deviations, reliability estimates and bivariate correlations among the variables. The internal consistencies of all the variables are acceptable, with values ranging from .70 to .95. The zero-order correlations of the scaled variables were all in the expected direction and provided preliminary support for the hypotheses.

Table 3.7 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations among Scale Scores, Follow-up Study

	Correlations														
	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1 Propensity	3.35	.59	(.70)												
2 DDI	3.21	.99	.20*	(.95)											
3 Ability	4.76	.95	.13*	.001	(.93)										
4 Benevolence	4.12	1.16	.22*	.14*	.60*	(.91)									
5 Integrity	4.62	1.06	.21*	.06	.72*	.76*	(.94)								
6 Availability	4.60	1.01	.15*	.02	.42*	.49*	.52*	(.72)							
7 Receptivity	4.85	.96	.17*	.03	.65*	.69*	.81*	.56*	(.93)						
8 Reliance	4.36	1.16	.19*	.04	.76*	.67*	.74*	.45*	.69*	(.93)					
9 Disclosure	3.19	1.38	.18*	.26*	.36*	.58*	.44*	.37*	.37*	.52*	(.90)				
10 Expectation	5.39	1.34	.19*	.06	.60*	.67*	.75*	.43*	.68*	.68*	.44*	(.93)			
11 JP	4.59	.87	.13*	.03	.71*	.55*	.69*	.38*	.66*	.74*	.32*	.63*	(.81)		
12 OCBO	4.54	1.34	.20*	.08	.63*	.62*	.65*	.35*	.56*	.71*	.47*	.59*	.60*	(.94)	
13 OCBI	4.74	1.36	.16*	.09*	.59*	.70*	.72*	.39*	.64*	.69*	.54*	.66*	.59*	.78*	(.94)

Note. JP = in-role job performance; OCBO = organizational citizenship behaviour toward organizations; OCBI = organizational citizenship.

3.4.3.2 Construct validity examination

The hypothesized CFA model had 13 factors but both the χ^2 and CFI indicated this model did not fit the data well, $\chi^2 = 7804.86$, $df = 3081$, $p < .001$, $CFI = .877$, $RMSEA = .053$, $SRMR = .052$. Five pairs of error correlations meeting the criteria followed in the preliminary study were added to specify a new modified model which yielded acceptable model fit, $\chi^2 = 6936.45$, $df = 3076$, $p < .001$, $CFI = .903$, $RMSEA = .045$, $SRMR = .049$. The following analyses are based on this modified measurement model. The five pairs of error correlations that were freed included: two pairs of reversed items (job performance items 6 and 7 ($r = .76$); and trust propensity items 1 and 4 ($r = .45$)) and three pairs of unreversed items (disclosure items 3 and 4 ($r = .44$); DDI items 7 and 11 ($r = .41$) and expectation items 4 and 5 ($r = .49$)). Regarding the wording of these items, the two items in each pair mainly had similar meanings, e.g. DDI item 7 “When I am in a bad mood, I talk about it with others” and DDI item 11 “I usually seek out someone to talk to when I am in a bad mood.” The residual correlations were maintained in the following analyses.

Following the argument regarding the importance of construct validity estimation in the preliminary study, a series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) were conducted to assess the construct distinctiveness of the variables. The first of the two parts of the table displays the model fit indicators of different CFA models and the second part presents the comparisons between the alternative CFA models and the base-line model. The construct validity test was conducted for several purposes. First, since there was a newly-developed scale (supervisor positive expectations, used to jointly measure supervisors’ willingness to trust and reliance and disclosure) it was crucial to test the discriminant validity between the three factors involved. To do this, four CFA models were specified by combining reliance and disclosure into one

factor (Model 2), reliance and expectation into one factor (Model 3), combining disclosure and expectation into one factor (Model 4) and combining the three factors into one factor (Model 5). Comparison of the base-line model with these three models showed that the former had a significantly better fit than the other three, thus demonstrating the construct validity of the three aspects of willingness to trust. The results are shown in Table 3.8.

The second purpose was to test the construct validity of the antecedents of supervisor trust in subordinates, both the general aspects (ABI) and the specific antecedents of subordinate-based trust (availability and receptivity). A pair-wise method was used for all the five antecedents to examine the chi-square differences and to determine whether the hypothesised model fitted the data significantly better than the alternative models. The results are presented as Models 6 to 15 in Table 3.9. Model 16 combined all the five antecedents into one factor and Model 17 combined all seven predictors into one factor. The baseline model still fitted the data significantly better than the alternative models. These results support the construct validity of all the predictor variables.

The third purpose was to assess the construct validity of the three factors constituting subordinate job outcomes: job performance, OCBI and OCBO. Models 18 to 20 each combined two of the three factors into one factor and Model 21 combined all three. Again, the baseline model had a significantly superior model fit. The results are shown in Table 3.10.

All the comparison results showed that the hypothesised 13-factor model fitted the data best. The standardised factor loadings were mostly above .50 and all were statistically significant. The correlations among the latent factors ranged from .14

to .85. (reported in Table 3.11). The construct validity was deemed adequate to proceed to the analysis of the hypothesised structural relations among the variables.

Table 3.8 Fit Indices and Comparisons of Model Fit for Competing CFA Models For Supervisor Trust Dimensions, Follow-up Study

Measurement Model	$\chi^2(df)$	$\Delta\chi^2(\Delta df)$	RMSEA	CFI	SRMR
Trust dimensions					
(1) Hypothesized model with correlations of errors	6936.45**(3076)	--	.05	.90	.05
(2) Combining Reliance and Disclosure into one factor	8105.79**(3088)	1169.34**(12)	.05	.87	.06
(3) Combining Reliance and Expectation into one factor	7489.16**(3088)	552.71**(12)	.05	.89	.05
(4) Combining Disclosure and Expectation into one factor	8088.10**(3088)	1151.65**(12)	.05	.88	.06
(5) Combining all three into one factor	8642.62**(3099)	1706.17**(23)	.06	.86	.06

Table 3.9 Fit Indices and Comparisons of Model Fit for Competing CFA Models For Supervisor Trust Antecedents, Follow-up Study

Measurement Model	$\chi^2(df)$	$\Delta\chi^2(\Delta df)$	RMSEA	CFI	SRMR
(1) Hypothesized model with correlations of errors	6936.45**(3076)	--	.05	.90	.05
(6) Combining Ability and Benevolence into one factor	8077.42**(3088)	1140.97**(12)	.05	.87	.06
(7) Combining Ability and Integrity into one factor	8003.99**(3088)	1067.54**(12)	.05	.87	.05
(8) Combining Ability and Availability into one factor	7355.61**(3088)	419.16**(12)	.05	.89	.05
(9) Combining Ability and Receptivity into one factor	8115.15**(3088)	1178.70**(12)	.06	.87	.05
(10) Combining Benevolence and Integrity into one factor	7414.70**(3088)	478.25**(12)	.05	.89	.05
(11) Combining Benevolence and Availability into one factor	7263.87**(3088)	327.42**(12)	.05	.89	.05
(12) Combine Benevolence and Receptivity into one factor	7681.82**(3088)	745.37**(12)	.05	.88	.05
(13) Combining Integrity and Availability into one factor	8579.99**(3096)	1643.54**(20)	.06	.86	.09
(14) Combining Integrity and Receptivity into one factor	7495.00**(3088)	558.55**(12)	.05	.89	.05
(15) Combining Availability and Receptivity into one factor	9637.29**(3092)	2700.84**(16)	.06	.83	.14
(16) Combining the five antecedents into one factor	9353.37**(3118)	2416.92**(42)	.06	.84	.06
(17) Combining all the predictors into one factor	15618.13**(3144)	8681.68**(68)	.09	.67	.14

Table 3.10 Fit Indices and Comparisons of Model Fit for Competing CFA Models For Subordinate Performance Dimensions, Follow-up Study

Measurement Model	$\chi^2(df)$	$\Delta\chi^2(\Delta df)$	RMSEA	CFI	SRMR
(1) Hypothesized model with correlations of errors	6936.45**(3076)	--	.05	.90	.05
(18) Combining JP and OCBI into one factor	10657.70**(3126)	3721.25**(50)	0.07	0.81	0.06
(19) Combining JP and OCBO into one factor	10628.39**(3126)	3691.94**(50)	0.07	0.81	0.06
(20) Combining OCBO and OCBI into one factor	10123.85**(3126)	3187.40**(50)	0.06	0.82	0.06
(21) Combining all the outcomes into one factor	11362.95**(3126)	4426.50**(57)	0.07	0.79	0.06

Table 3.11 Intercorrelations Between Latent Constructs from Modified CFA Measurement Model, Follow-up Study

	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1 Ability	.66*	.77*	.61*	.70*	.82*	.37*	.68*	.83*	.68*	.64*	.20*	.01
2 Benevolence		.83*	.65*	.76*	.73*	.61*	.78*	.63*	.68*	.75*	.29*	.14*
3 Integrity			.72*	.85*	.78*	.45*	.85*	.74*	.71*	.78*	.27*	.07
4 Availability				.76*	.63*	.40*	.65*	.61*	.51*	.55*	.28*	.05
5 Receptivity					.74*	.37*	.78*	.71*	.61*	.69*	.21*	.04
6 Reliance						.52*	.75*	.81*	.77*	.74*	.24*	.05
7 Disclosure							.48*	.34*	.48*	.54*	.24*	.30*
8 Expectation								.71*	.69*	.76*	.25*	.07
9 JP									.67*	.67*	.34*	.04
10 OCBO										.83*	.27*	.08
11 OCBI											.21*	.09*
12 Trust propensity												.22*
13 DDI												

Note. JP = in-role job performance; OCBO = organizational citizenship behaviour toward organizations; OCBI = organizational citizenship behaviour toward individuals; DDI = distress disclosure.

* $p < .001$

3.4.3.3 Tests of hypotheses

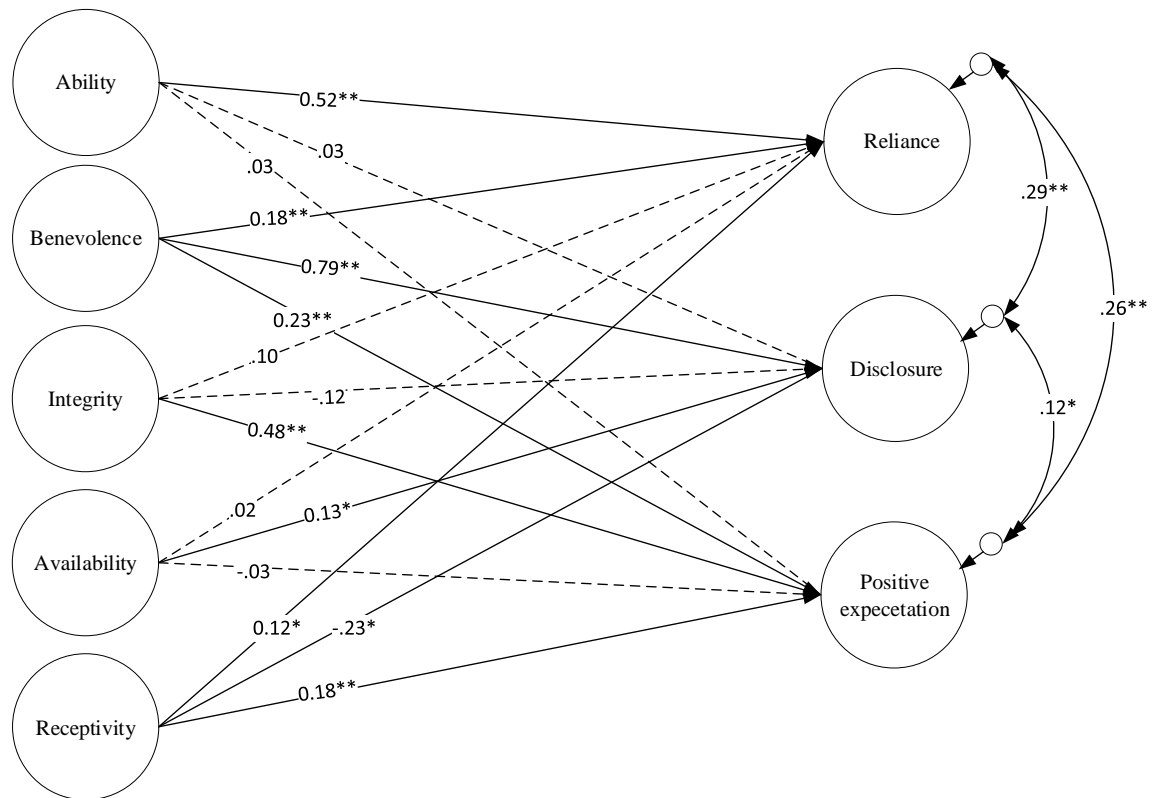
Using the same analytic procedures for testing the hypotheses in the preliminary study, two analytical approaches were used: variable-oriented and person-oriented.

Variable-oriented approach. Structural equation modelling (SEM) implemented with Mplus was used to test the statistical significance of the hypothesized paths. Hypotheses 1 to 3 proposed that perceived subordinate (a) ability, (b) benevolence, (c) integrity, (d) availability and (e) receptivity positively related to supervisor's reliance intention (H1), disclosure intention (H2) and positive expectations (H3). The results of these tests are shown in Figure 3.5. The model had acceptable fit indices, $\chi^2(635) = 2133.96$, $p < .001$, $CFI = .92$, $RMSEA = .07$, $SRMR = .05$. The path coefficients supported H_1 (a), (b) and (e) based on statistically significant relationships of ability, benevolence and integrity with supervisor reliance intention. Support was also found for H_2 (b) and (d) that benevolence and availability were significantly positively related to supervisor disclosure intention. Finally, H_3 (b), (c) and (d) were supported that benevolence, integrity and availability were significantly positively related to supervisor expectations. The coefficients are summarized in Table 3.12, Model 1.

Although no hypothesis was proposed regarding the predictive power of subordinate general trustworthiness (ABI) and the specific trust antecedents (availability and receptivity), it has previously been argued in this chapter that these two sets of trust antecedents are equally important to supervisors. To further estimate the predictive power of the five trust antecedents, two additional SEM models were specified (Models 2 and 3 in Table 3.12) to compare the r-square changes with respect to the hypothesized model. Model 2 contained only availability and receptivity as

predictors and had model fit indices as follows: $\chi^2(218) = 1037.75$, $p < .001$, $CFI = .92$, $RMSEA = .08$, $SRMR = .05$. Model 3 only had ABI as predictors and its model fit indices were $\chi^2(417) = 1535.54$, $CFI = .93$, $RMSEA = .07$, $SRMR = .05$. Compared with Model 1, the changes in the r-square of the three dependent variables in Model 3 are small: $\Delta R^2 = .01$ for supervisor reliance intention, $\Delta R^2 = .01$ for supervisor disclosure intention and $\Delta R^2 = .00$ for positive expectations.

Figure 3.5 Results of SEM Model 1 Testing Direct Effects of Antecedents on Supervisor Trust Intension, Follow-up Study



Note: Standardized coefficients are reported. $\chi^2(635) = 2133.96$, $p < .001$, $CFI = .92$, $RMSEA = .07$, $SRMR = .05$. The dotted lines indicate non-significant paths; solid lines indicate significant paths. ** $p < .01$.

Table 3.12 Path Coefficients from Models 1-3, Follow-up Study

Predictors	DV=Reliance Intention			DV=Disclosure Intention			DV=Positive Expectations		
	M1	M2	M3	M1	M2	M3	M1	M2	M3
Availability	.02	.18 **		.13	.28*		.03	.13*	
Receptivity	.12*	.60**		-.23*	.16*		.18**	.68**	
Ability	.52**		.53**	.03		.02	.03		.02
Benevolence	.18**		.21**	.79**		.77**	.23**		.28**
Integrity	.10		.19**	-.12		-.21	.48**		.56**
R-square	.75	.55	.75	.40	.12	.39	.74	.61	.70

Note: M1= Model 1; M2= Model 2; M3= Model 3. ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$;

Hypotheses 4 through 6 regard the direct and moderated effects of supervisor trust disposition on the three dependent variables. The latent variable interaction effects were estimated using Mplus 7.2 and following the residual centring method (also called orthogonalizing method) suggested by Little, Bovaird and Widaman (2006). Following the suggested steps, the indicators (second-order) for the latent interaction term were created using the first-order indicators of the variables involved in the interaction by multiplying the first-order indicating items. Secondly, each of the second-order indicators was regressed on the full set of relevant first-order indicators of the main-effect constructs. The residual from each regression model was saved and used as an indicator for the latent interaction construct in the structural equation model. There are three overwhelming advantages of the orthogonalizing technique for examining interaction effects: (a) it provides estimates that are comparable to other procedures, including the LMS/QML approach in Mplus (Little et al., 2006; Little, Card, Bovaird, Preacher & Crandall, 2007); (b) more estimation results can be obtained from this method, such as standardized factor loading results, and more model fit indices, like CFI, compared with LMS/QML; (c) it keeps the value of the main effect parameter unaffected after the interaction construct is entered, that is, the regression coefficients and standard errors of the first-order effect remain unaffected.

Table 3.13 presents the results of the relevant hypothesis testing, including the r-square of the dependent variables in the different moderation models. Only the effect of the interaction between perceived subordinate receptivity and supervisor trust disposition on supervisor reliance intention was found to have a small but statistically significant effect, $\beta = .09, p < .01$. In addition, adding interaction products into all the models was found to contribute little to the r-square changes.

Hypothesis 7 predicted a direct interaction effect of supervisor distress disclosure on supervisor trust disclosure intention. The moderating effects were estimated using the orthogonalizing method. The results of the six models estimated are shown in Table 3.13. Only the interaction effect between supervisor distress disclosure and perceived subordinate benevolence was significant (Model 4 in Table 3.13). The r-squares grow from Model 1 (the referent model) to Model 3 after including DDI in Model 2 ($\Delta R^2 = .03$) and the interaction product in Model 3 ($\Delta R^2 = .03$). Model 4 shows that the interaction term for the supervisor distress disclosure trait and perceived subordinate benevolence is significant in predicting supervisor disclosure intention ($\beta = .11, p < .05$).

To interpret the moderation effect, a simple slope was plotted at low levels of supervisor DDI and high levels of supervisor DDI using Mplus, as is shown in Figure 3.6. The results revealed that both slopes are significant. The relationship between perceived subordinate benevolence and supervisor trust disclosure is stronger for high supervisor DDI (unstandardized $\beta = 1.10, p < .01$) than for low supervisor DDI (unstandardized $\beta = .79, p < .01$). Hence, only Hypothesis 7 (b) is supported, which assumes that supervisor distress disclosure is positively related to

supervisor disclosure intention and it will also moderate the relationship between supervisor disclosure intention and subordinate benevolence.

Table 3.13 Standardized Coefficients for Main and Interaction Terms on Three Aspects of Supervisor Trust Intention

	Reliance intention						Disclosure intention					
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
Ability	.54**	.52**	.53**	.54**	.54**	.53**	.07	.06	.08	.08	.08	.07
Benevolence	.13**	.13**	.18**	.16**	.12**	.15**	.66**	.66**	0.70**	.68**	.66**	.69**
Integrity	.15*	.16*	.13	.12	.15*	.15*	-.10	-.10	-.12	-.12	-.12	-.12
Availability	-.01	-.01	.00	.00	-.01	.00	.04	.04	.03	.06	.04	.04
Receptivity	.13*	.12*	.01	.12*	.13*	.12*	-.10	-.10	-.14	-.14	-.10	-.12
Disposition	.08**	.09**	.11**	.08**	.08**	.08**	.04	.05	.07	.03	.05	.04
Ability X Disposition		.01						-.01				
Benevolence X Disposition			0						-.02			
Integrity X Disposition				.03						-.02		
Availability X Disposition					.01						.07	
Receptivity X Disposition						.09**						0
R-square	.75	.75	.77	.75	.75	.76	.35	.35	.38	.34	.36	.35

Note: **p<.01; *p<.05.

Table 3.12 continued

	Positive expectations					
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
Ability	.03	.03	.01	.02	.01	.01
Benevolence	.22**	.23**	.27**	.22**	.22**	.23**
Integrity	.53**	.53**	.50**	.56**	.53**	.52**
Availability	-.03	-0.04	-.03	-.03	-.03	-.03
Receptivity	.14*	.15*	.11	.11	.14*	.13*
Disposition	.08**	.09**	.11**	.07*	.09**	.09**
Ability X Disposition		-.05				
Benevolence X Disposition			-.04			
Integrity X Disposition				-.03		
Availability X Disposition					-.05	
Receptivity X Disposition						-.02
R-square	.71	.72	.71	.74	.72	.71

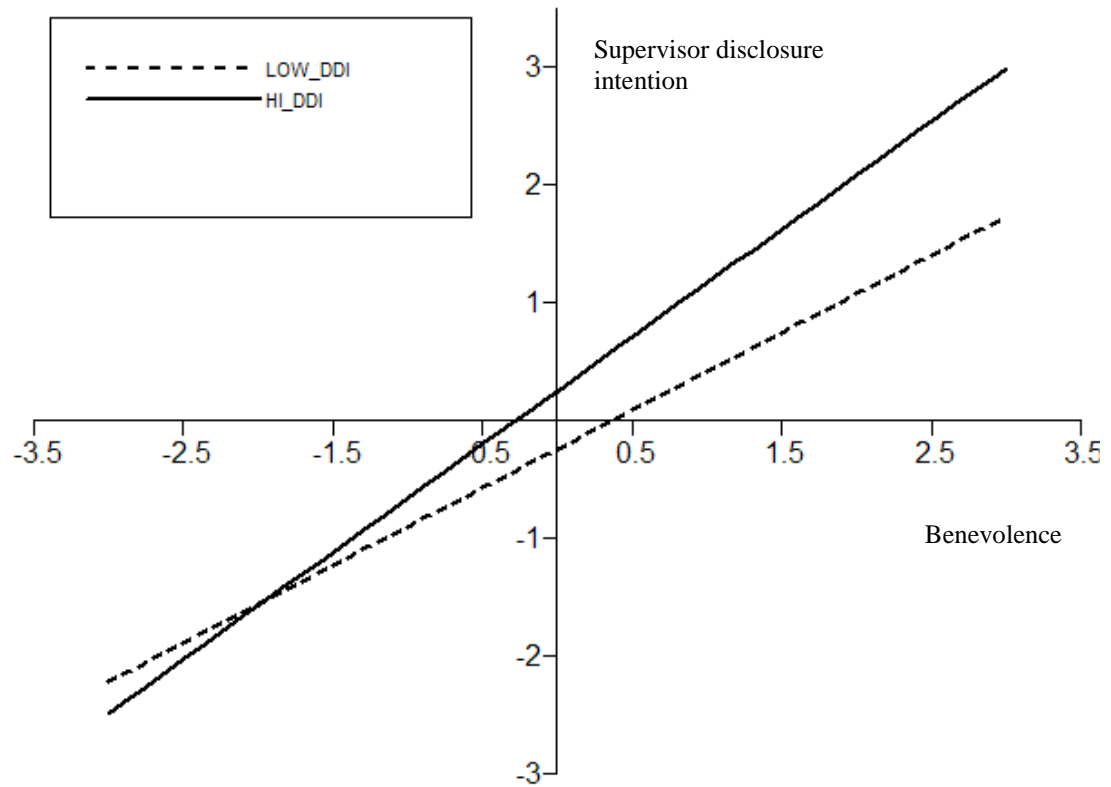
Note: **p<.01; *p<.05.

Table 3.14 Estimates of The Interaction Effects of DDI and The Five Trust Antecedents, Follow-up Study

	Disclosure intention						
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7
Ability	.05	.08	.09	.08	.05	.06	.05
Benevolence	.68**	.64**	.64**	.63**	.67**	.67**	.66**
Integrity	-.06	-.07	-.11	-.12	-.05	-.07	-.02
Availability	.01	.02	.04	.02	.01	.02	.03
Receptivity	-.13	-.11	-.15	-.15	-.12	-.12	-.11
DDI		.20**	.23**	.23**	.22**	.21**	.20**
DDI X Ability			.08				
DDI X Benevolence				.11*			
DDI X Integrity					.08		
DDI X Availability						.08	
DDI X Receptivity							.04
R-square	.38	.41	.41	.41	.41	.41	.41
R-square change from		.03	.03	.03	.03	.03	.03

Note: DDI = distress disclosure index. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Figure 3.6 The Interaction Effects of Benevolence and DDI on Supervisor Disclosure Intention



Person-oriented approach.

The relationships between followers' and leaders' trust characteristics and supervisor trust intention have been examined using variable-oriented approach. To examine the latent profiles of follower trust characteristics and to test hypotheses 8 through 10, person-oriented approach was adopted. 1000 random sets of starting values were generated in the initial stage of the analysis and 200 optimizations were chosen for assessment. The values of the variables for ability, benevolence and integrity were grand-mean centred before the analysis was conducted.

ABI LPA. As for the preliminary study, the AIC, BIC and entropy indices were used as criteria to determine the number of profiles of follower ABI. The statistics for the different LPA solutions from a 2-profile solution to an 8-profile solution are shown

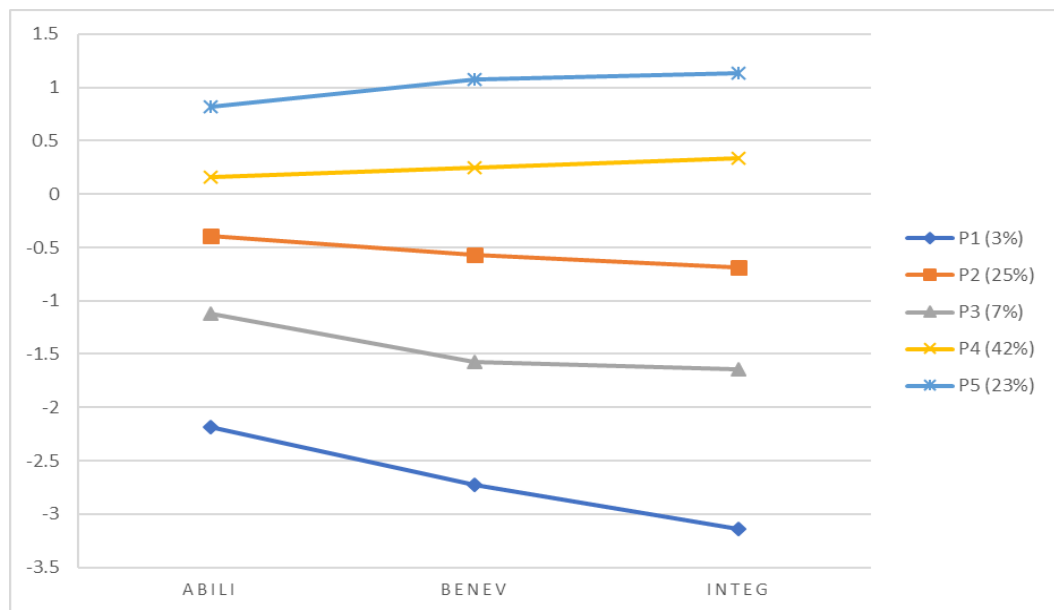
in Table 3.15. The 5-profile, 6-profile, 7-profile, and 8-profile models all show similar values of AIC, BIC and entropy. As in the preliminary study, LRM and BLRT were used to compute the p-value to test the 4-profile model against 5-profile model, the 5-profile model against the 6-profile model, the 6-profile model against the 7-profile model, and the 7-profile model against the 8-profile model. The model comparison tests are presented in Table 3.16. Although the p-values were all significant in the BLRT test, only the 5-profile model was found to be significantly better than the 4-profile model in the LMR test. Therefore, the 4-profile model can be rejected. The other comparison results were non-significant due to the high p-value when testing the $k-1$ profile model against the k profile model. After determining the number of profiles, the means of the three dimensions of ABI with the 5-profile solution are reported in Figure 3.7 based on the best solution. Generally, the profiles show little qualitative difference (Marsh, Lüdtke, Trautwein, & Morin, 2009). That is, the shapes of each profile are similar. This result was quite different to the profile shape in the preliminary study.

Table 3.15 Model fit statistics for the different ABI LPA solutions, Follow-up Study

# of Clusters	Parameters	Log-likelihood	BIC	AIC	Entropy
Two	10	-1708.89	3479.26	3437.78	.80
Three	14	-1622.56	3331.20	3273.12	.83
Four	18	-1999.29	4112.74	4043.58	.76
Five	22	-1880.82	3900.33	3805.63	.87
Six	26	-1867.26	3898.43	3786.52	.87
Seven	30	-1852.14	3893.41	3764.28	.87
Eight	34	-1837.13	3888.61	3742.25	.89

Table 3.16 Statistics of LMR and BLRT Test for ABI LPA, Follow-up Study

	LMR			BLRT		
	2(Δ LL)	df	p-value	2(Δ LL)	df	p-value
4-profile model vs. 5-profile model	65.77	4	.03	65.77	4	<.0001
5-profile model vs. 6-profile model	27.12	4	.57	27.12	4	<.0001
6-profile model vs. 7-profile model	30.24	4	.06	30.24	4	<.0001
7-profile model vs. 8-profile model	30.02	4	.21	30.24	4	<.0001

Figure 3.7 Means and Proportions of 5-profile Solution (ABI), Follow-up Study

Comparing the demographic variables of the respondents in the two studies, only 4% (N=7) of the participants in the preliminary study had less than 1 year working experience in their current organizations, while, although the percentage of participants in the follow-up study who had less than 1-year tenure was 6% (N=32).

Since ABI regards supervisor perceptions of the subordinate which is affected by his or her knowledge of the organisation and the position, supervisor tenure is a focal factor with which to cluster the respondents into two groups for LPA analysis. Consequently, I only used the subsample of supervisors with more than one year of supervisor tenure in the remaining analyses.

The model fit indices, AIC, BIC and entropy for different LPA profile solutions using the subsample of respondents whose tenure was greater than 1 year are shown in Table 3.17. As the table shows, the five-profile, six-profile and seven-profile solutions had similar AIC, BIC and entropy. LRM and BLRT were used to compute the p-value to test the 4-profile model against the 5-profile model, the 5-profile model against the 6-profile model and the 6-profile model against the 7-profile model. The comparison results are presented in Table 3.18. The 6-profile model best fit the data. After determining the number of profiles, the means for the six-profile model and the proportions of the latent profiles are presented in Figure 3.8.

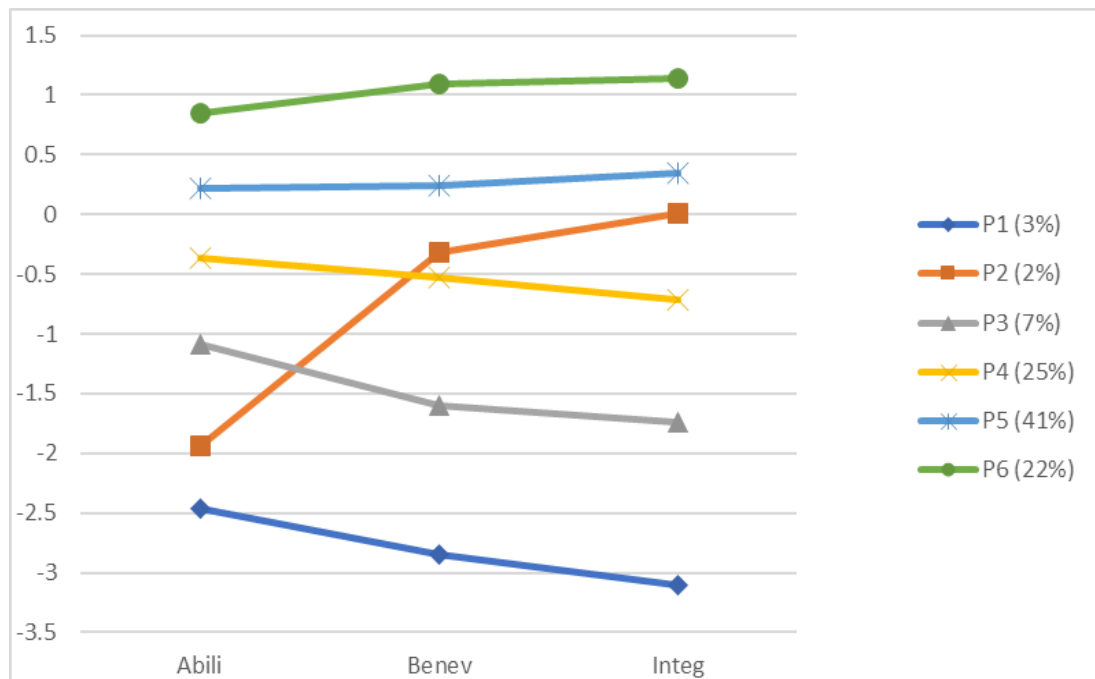
Table 3.17 Model Fit Statistics for the Different ABI LPA Solutions Using High-tenure Subgroup Respondents, Follow-up Study

# of Clusters	Parameters	Log-likelihood	BIC	AIC	Entropy
Two	10	-1993.80	4050.04	4007.60	.86
Three	14	-1852.52	3792.46	3733.04	.87
Four	18	-1806.65	3725.69	3649.30	.80
Five	22	-1769.46	3676.30	3582.93	.88
Six	26	-1755.30	3672.94	3562.59	.89
Seven	30	-1745.78	3678.89	3551.56	.89

Table 3.18 Statistics of LMR and BLRT Test for ABI LPA Using High-tenure Subgroup Respondents, Follow-up Study

	LMR			BLRT		
	2(Δ LL)	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i> -value	2(Δ LL)	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i> -value
4-profile model vs. 5-profile model	74.37	4	<.01	74.37	4	<.0001
5-profile model vs. 6-profile model	56.43	4	<.05	56.43	4	<.0001
6-profile model vs. 7-profile model	47.46	4	>.05	47.46	4	<.0001

Figure 3.8 Means and Proportions of six-profile Solutions Based on ABI LPA Using High-tenure Respondents, Follow-up Study (N=515)



As Figure 3.8 shows, different profiles were found as expected. Like the profiles identified in the preliminary study, follow-up study also found trustworthy subordinates (Profile 6, 22%), trustable subordinates (Profile 5 41%), well-meaning subordinates (Profile 2, 2%), capable subordinates (Profile 3, 7% and Profile 4, 25%) and untrustworthy subordinates (Profile 1, 3%). Profiles 3 and 4 showed a similar profile shape – higher in ability and lower in benevolence and integrity – but in different levels.

To test hypotheses 8 and 9, which predicted the influence of different patterns of follower trustworthiness on leader trust and leader-rated follower in-role and extra-role job performance, the BCH method and auxiliary model were adopted to estimate different distal outcome models (Vermunt, 2010, 2014). Table 3.19 displays the means and standard deviations of the outcome variables in the different profile groups, as well as the results of equality tests indicated by the superscripts in the

table. Generally, the followers in Profile 1 were perceived to be at the lowest levels for the six outcome variables, and the means of the variables increased from Profile 1 to Profile 6. However, Profile 2 is an exception, as in this profile the followers were not perceived to be at the second lowest level.

Table 3.19 Means and Standard Deviation of Outcome Variables in Different latent profiles Based on ABI LPA Using A Subsample, Follow-up Study

Profile (N)	Dependent variables					
	Reliance	Disclosure	Positive expectations	Job Performance	OCBI	OCBO
1 (16)	1.77 ^a (.23)	1.56 ^a (.18)	1.92 ^a (.20)	2.55 ^a (.17)	1.81 ^a (.23)	2.37 ^a (.29)
2 (8)	2.79 ^b (.26)	2.59 ^{a,b,c,d} (.59)	4.82 ^b (.19)	3.17 ^b (.26)	3.82 ^{b,c} (.41)	2.97 ^a (.34)
3 (36)	2.64 ^b (.16)	2.05 ^b (.16)	3.29 ^c (.19)	3.34 ^b (.13)	3.16 ^b (.17)	2.95 ^a (.20)
4 (126)	3.83 ^c (.08)	2.64 ^c (.11)	5.02 ^b (.08)	4.26 ^c (.06)	4.04 ^c (.96)	3.86 ^b (.09)
5 (214)	4.65 ^d (.05)	3.35 ^d (.09)	5.83 ^d (.06)	4.91 ^d (.04)	5.11 ^d (.98)	4.91 ^c (.08)
6 (115)	5.48 ^e (.06)	4.23 ^e (.14)	6.55 ^e (.08)	5.20 ^e (.06)	5.87 ^e (.86)	5.68 ^d (.09)

Note. For each outcome variable, the letter superscripts for the means indicate sets of means that do not significantly differ from each other.

As Table 3.19 shows, the equality tests of the means of the six distal outcome variables using the BCH procedure were significant across Profiles 3 to 6. The followers in Profiles 4 to 6 were perceived to have significantly higher outcome variables than those in Profile 1. When comparing Profile 1 with Profile 2, although supervisors were more likely to disclose with followers ($M_{\text{disclosure}} = 2.59$) and followers had a higher perceived level of OCBO ($M_{\text{OCBO}} = 2.97$) in Profile 2 than the followers Profile 1 ($M_{\text{disclosure}} = 1.56$; $M_{\text{OCBO}} = 2.37$), the difference was non-significant. The followers in Profile 3 ($M_{\text{OCBO}} = 2.95$) were perceived to be higher in OCBO than those in Profile 1 but again the difference was non-significant. Except

for supervisors' positive expectations, the equality tests of the means of the five other outcome variables showed that the followers in Profile 2 and Profile 3 had non-significant differences for reliance, disclosure and in-role and extra-role performance. However, the supervisors had significantly higher expectations of the followers in Profile 2 ($M = 4.82$) than those in Profile 3 ($M = 3.29$). The followers in Profile 4 were perceived to be significantly higher in supervisor reliance, in-role job performance and OCBO than those in Profile 2, but they were not perceived to be significantly higher in supervisor disclosure intention, positive expectations or OCBI. Comparing the followers in Profile 2 and Profile 5, except for supervisor disclosure intention the followers in Profile 5 were rated significantly higher in the outcome variables than those in Profile 2. Regarding the disclosure dimension, although the followers in Profile 5 ($M = 3.35$) were perceived to be higher than those in Profile 2 ($M = 2.59$), the difference was non-significant.

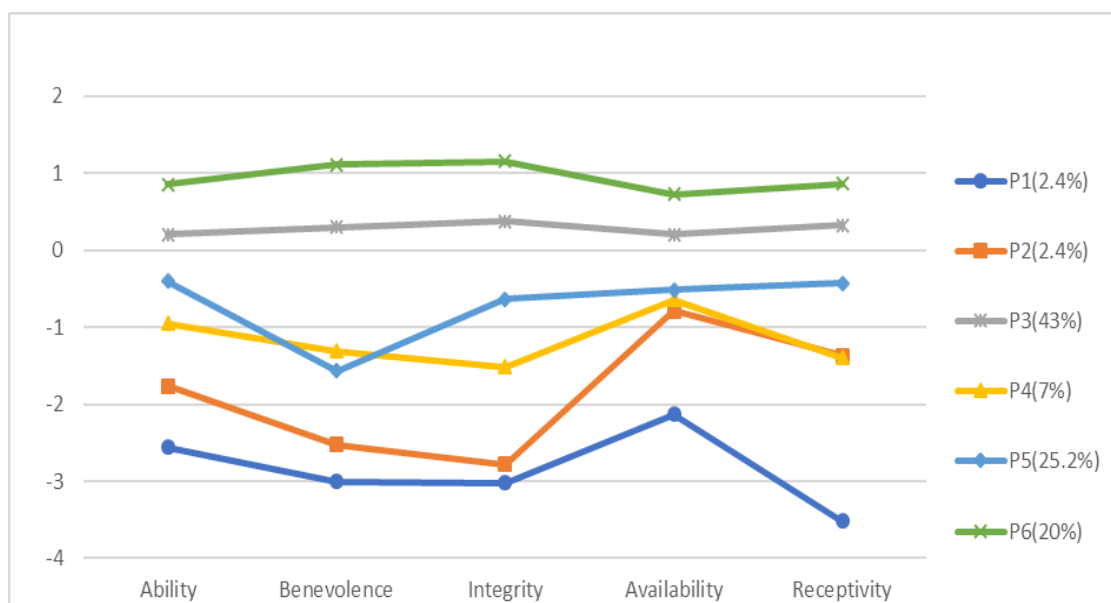
Five antecedents LPA. Hypothesis 11 assumes six latent profiles among the five trust antecedents. To test hypothesis 11, different LPA models from a 2-profile model to an 8-profile model were estimated to compute the AIC, BIC and entropy. The results are shown in Table 3.20. Comparing the model indices, the 6-profile and 7-profile solutions had similar model fit indices. Again, LRM and BLRT tests were used to compute the p-value to test the $k - 1$ profile model against the k profile model. The results are shown in Table 3.21. The 6-profile solution fitted the data best and the 5-profile and 7-profile solutions were rejected as they were not significantly better than the 6-profile solution.

Table 3.20 Model Fit Statistics of 5 Antecedents LPA, Follow-up Study

# of Clusters	Parameters	Log-likelihood	BIC	AIC	Entropy
Two	16	-3458.10	7017.10	6948.20	.88
Three	22	-3174.72	6488.17	6393.30	.91
Four	28	-3092.46	6361.49	6240.92	.84
Five	34	-3021.50	6257.41	6110.99	.87
Six	40	-2989.25	6230.76	6058.51	.89
Seven	46	-2979.15	6248.40	6050.31	.89
Eight	52	-2948.67	6225.27	6001.34	.90

Table 3.21 Statistics of LMR and BLRT Tests for 5 Antecedents LPA, Follow-up Study

	LMRT			BLRT		
	2(Δ LL)	df	p-value	2(Δ LL)2	df	p-value
4-profile model vs. 5 profile model	141.93	6	>.05	141.93	6	<.0001
5-profile model vs. 6 profile model	64.49	6	<.05	56.43	6	<.0001
6-profile model vs. 7 profile model	41.97	6	>.05	41.97	6	<.0001

Figure 3.9 Means and Probabilities of 6-Profile Solution (5 antecedents LPA) with a Subsample (N=515), Follow-up Study

The means of the variables and the proportions of the 6 latent profiles are displayed in Figure 3.9. Generally, the different profiles show both quantitative and qualitative differences (March et al., 2009). Profile 3 (43%) and Profile 6 (20%) showed similar patterns in that the subordinates in these two profiles were perceived to be slightly above and absolutely above the grand mean. The subordinates in Profile 6 were perceived to be the highest in the five factors, although availability and receptivity were slightly lower than the other three factors. Profile 2 (2.4%) and Profile 4 (7%) shared the same levels of availability and receptivity, but Profile 2 had lower levels of ABI. A substantial proportion of subordinates (Profile 5, 25.2%) had similar ratings for ability, integrity, availability and receptivity, but much lower ratings for benevolence. The pattern of ABI in Profile 1 (2.4%) was similar as that in Profile 2, but the subordinates in Profile 1 had extremely lower ratings for availability and receptivity. Generally, the findings showed that the variation in ABI was relatively independent of the variations in availability and receptivity, except for the pattern in Profile 5. In addition, there was still variation among availability and receptivity and the ratings for receptivity were similar to or lower than availability. Therefore, the assumption of latent profiles regarding the five trust antecedents were supported.

Table 3.22 Means and Standard Deviation of Outcome Variables in Different Latent Profiles About Five Trust Antecedents with a subsample (N=515), Follow-up Study

Profile (N)	Dependent variables					
	Reliance	Disclosure	Positive expectations	Job Performance	OCBO	OCBI
1 (13)	1.79 ^a (.28)	1.62 ^a (.24)	1.94 ^a (.34)	2.81 ^a (.20)	2.45 ^a (.36)	1.87 ^{a,b} (.23)
2 (13)	2.07 ^a (0.27)	1.36 ^a (.14)	2.24 ^a (.23)	2.60 ^a (.21)	2.30 ^a (.36)	2.10 ^{a,c} (.28)
3 (236)	4.67 ^b (.05)	3.42 ^b (.09)	5.77 ^b (.06)	4.85 ^b (.05)	4.87 ^b (.08)	5.06 ^b (.07)
4 (38)	2.92 ^c (.17)	2.22 ^c (.18)	3.61 ^c (.15)	3.44 ^c (.13)	2.96 ^c (.18)	3.22 ^c (.19)
5 (138)	3.75 ^d (.08)	2.61 ^c (.10)	4.91 ^d (.07)	4.25 ^d (.06)	3.85 ^d (.09)	4.04 ^d (.09)
6 (110)	5.48 ^e (.06)	4.11 ^d (.14)	6.51 ^e (.09)	5.24 ^e (.06)	5.73 ^e (.10)	6.02 ^e (.08)

Note. For each outcome variable, the letter superscripts for the means indicate sets of means that do not significantly differ from each other.

The BCH method and an auxiliary model were used to test hypothesis 10, which predicted the different values of supervisor reliance, disclosure intention and the ratings for follower in-role job performance, OCBO and OCBI for the different profiles. The means and standard deviations of the outcome variables for the different profile groups are shown in Table 3.22. The order of the variable means for the different profiles from high to low was Profile 6, Profile 3, Profile 5, Profile 4, Profile 2 and Profile 1. The results of the equality tests are summarized in Table 3.22 indicated by the superscripts in the table. As the table shows, the followers in Profile 1 and Profile 2 were perceived to have similar patterns of ABI but different ratings for availability and receptivity, and showed no difference in their supervisors' trust and their job performance. The other comparisons were significant except for three pairs: Profile 1 against Profile 4, Profile 2 against Profile 4 for OCBO, and Profile 4 against Profile 5 for disclosure.

3.5 Discussion

3.5.1 Summary of the findings from the two empirical studies

Two studies and two different approaches have been adopted in this chapter to address the research questions about relationships between trust antecedents and supervisor trust intention. Traditionally, trust research has been theorized and empirically studied using variable-oriented approaches, with trust being found to be linearly related to the relevant outcomes and predictors. This approach allows researchers to understand the cause-effect relationships between trust and its predictors or outcomes. A person-oriented approach allows for complex combinations among all possible trust antecedent sets, with different high scores or low scores for each dimension of ability, benevolence, integrity, availability and

receptivity. This subsection aims to compare the findings from the two studies in this chapter.

Regarding the variable-oriented approach, which was used to examine the predictors of supervisor trust, both the two empirical studies found that ability and integrity predicted supervisor reliance intention and that benevolence was more related to supervisor disclosure intention when availability and receptivity were excluded from the model. The unique effect of benevolence on reliance was supported in the follow-up study but not in the preliminary one. The greater magnitude of benevolence in the second study might be a result of increasing the sample size to nearly triple that of the first. Therefore, when only considering ABI, it can be concluded that all three factors are related to supervisor reliance and only benevolence is related to supervisor disclosure.

Due to issues with the measurement model in the preliminary study, the effects of availability and receptivity were only examined in the follow-up. When only availability and receptivity were included in the model without ABI, both of them were uniquely and significantly related to the two dimensions of supervisor trust. However, when the five antecedents were included in the model, the unique effects of availability and receptivity on reliance and disclosure were absent. This leads to the conclusion that the aspects of follower general trustworthiness – ABI – are stronger predictors than the specific aspects of follower trust characteristics, i.e., availability and receptivity.

The follow-up extended the preliminary study by creating a new dimension to measure supervisor trust: the supervisor's positive expectations of the follower. Follower receptivity, benevolence and integrity were related to this new dimension,

with integrity being the strongest predictor. Considering the magnitude of the unique effects of the five antecedents, the overall conclusion is that a follower's ability is the strongest predictor of a supervisor's reliance, benevolence is the strongest predictor of disclosure, and integrity is the strongest predictor of a supervisor's positive expectations.

Regarding the person-oriented approach, the patterns of follower ABI was examined in both studies. Although the numbers of the profiles identified in the two studies were slightly different (5 profiles in the first and 6 in the second), the patterns that emerged were nearly same. As hypothesised, except for those with similar high or low levels of all aspects of ABI, the followers were rated either relatively higher in ability but lower in benevolence and integrity – i.e. as capable followers – or relatively lower in ability but higher in the other two aspects – i.e. as well-meaning followers. The difference in supervisor reliance intention between these two profiles was not statistically significant in either study. However, supervisors had significantly higher reliance intention with trustable followers than with well-meaning followers, who had similar levels of benevolence and integrity but higher a level of ability.

Regarding supervisor disclosure intentions, supervisors had much higher disclosure intentions with well-meaning followers than capable followers in the preliminary study. Although the difference between these two groups in terms of supervisor disclosure intention were non-significant in the follow-up study, supervisors still extended a higher level of disclosure with well-meaning followers. Therefore, it is reasonable to conclude that supervisors have a higher intention to disclose with well-meaning followers than with capable followers. Furthermore, supervisors had higher

expectations of well-meaning followers than capable followers in the follow-up study. The follow-up extended the preliminary study by measuring follower job performance, OCBI and OCBO rated by the supervisor, and capable followers performed better in their in-role job performance than well-meaning followers, although the difference was statistically non-significant. Well-meaning followers had a significantly higher level of OCBI than capable followers, but the two subgroups had similar levels of OCBO. It might be the case that supervisors believe well-meaning followers have general good intentions towards others and would like to help their colleagues.

When all five antecedents of supervisor trust were considered using LPA, the most interesting profiles were Profile 2, Profile 4 and Profile 5, which supported the hypothesis that variation in ABI is more independent of availability and receptivity. The followers in Profile 2 and Profile 4 were perceived to have similar levels of availability and receptivity, but those in Profile 4 were perceived to be higher in ABI than those in Profile 2. Indeed, supervisors had higher intentions of relying on and disclosing with followers in Profile 4, who performed better in terms of in-role job performance and OCBI but not significantly better for OCBO. In profile 5, follower benevolence and availability were perceived to be similar to those of the followers in Profile 4, but the three other aspects were perceived to be higher. However, supervisor disclosure intention in Profile 5 was not significantly higher than in Profile 4.

3.5.2 General discussion of this chapter

This chapter has contributed to the trust literature in several ways. First, the follow-up study contributes to trust measurement development and answers the research call

to operationalise trust as a multidimensional construct (McEvily & Tortoriello, 2011). Most trust studies only focus on the first part of Mayer et al.'s (1995) definition, which regards the trustor's willingness to be vulnerable. The second part of the definition – that the willingness to be vulnerable is based on expectations that the other party will show particular actions that are important to the trustor (Mayer et al., 1995) – has been ignored in the existing trust research. The newly developed trust construct in the follow-up study aims to measure the positive expectations of the trustor in conjunction with willingness to be vulnerable in order to capture the multifaceted nature of trust intention. The newly developed dimension showed high reliability and construct validity in the follow-up study and high correlations were found with the five trust antecedents. Benevolence, integrity and receptivity were found to predict positive supervisor expectations, while subordinate ability and availability showed little influence.

Second, this chapter contributes to the trust literature by examining different trust antecedents in order to empirically test the power of these constructs in predicting subordinate-based trust. Although Werbel and Lopes Henriques (2009) argue that ability, availability and receptivity are more suitable for studying subordinate-based trust than ABI, there is no empirical support for this argument. The findings in this chapter's follow-up study indicated that ABI were stronger explanatory variables, and availability and receptivity added no new explanatory power to a subordinate-based trust model.

In addition to studying the effects of subordinate-related factors on supervisor trust intention, two characteristics (trust propensity and distress disclosure) of supervisors were found to be influential in the follow-up study. In their meta-analysis, Colquitt et

al. (2007) found that trust propensity is a significant predictor of trust even when controlling for ABI. In the follow-up study, supervisor trust propensity had an effect on supervisor reliance intention after controlling for five trust antecedents. However, the interaction effects were not supported. These findings further support the argument that trustor trust propensity should be studied as a direct predictor rather than a moderator in trust studies.

The second important supervisor characteristic which had interaction effects with benevolence on supervisor disclosure intention was supervisors' distress disclosure tendency. Although the variance in disclosure had a very small increase after adding distress disclosure tendency into the model, this study has answered a call from Jones and Shah (2016) for more research focusing on the characteristics of trustors in trust research. Jones and Shah (2016) studied the dynamic influence of the trustor and the trustee on the trustee's perceived trustworthiness over time and found that trustor perceptions were dominated by the trustor, even though there were changes in their perceptions of trustees' trustworthiness.

The most outstanding finding in this chapter is that different latent profiles were found by adopting a person-oriented approach, also known as a pattern approach, to study trust antecedents. After establishing the complex correlations between trust antecedents and supervisor trust, a person-oriented approach was adopted to examine different patterns of follower trustworthiness and their predictions of supervisor's trust. As a complementary approach to the variable-oriented approach, the pattern approach treats each individual as a *totality* rather than a *summation of variables* (Foti & Hauenstein, 2007). The implication for trust research is that each trustworthiness aspect has less significance on its own than when it is investigated

with other aspects of the individual. As expected, five different patterns were found among followers' ABI. The results from the two methods are consistent, but the pattern method provides an in-depth understanding of the relationships between follower trustworthiness and supervisor trust. For example, follower ability was found to be the strongest predictor of supervisor reliance intention using the variable-oriented approach, but this does not answer the question of what the influence of the association between ability and two other aspects – integrity and benevolence – of trustworthiness on supervisor reliance intention is. By using a person-oriented approach, this chapter has shown that supervisors have lower reliance intention with followers who are high in benevolence and integrity but low in ability – well-meaning followers – compared with followers who are similar in benevolence and integrity but high in ability – trustable followers. Ability varies independently of the other two dimensions, benevolence and integrity. This finding is in line with Jones and Shah's (2016) argument that ability is more domain-specific, while benevolence and integrity are evaluated globally across domains. A subordinate might have professional sets of working skills or capabilities, but lack benevolence and integrity, or vice versa. Furthermore, latent profile groups have been found to have significant effects on two domains of supervisor trust intention (in both studies) and also on supervisor positive expectations (only in the follow-up study). In the second LPA model in the follow-up study, after adding availability and receptivity into the model the variation in ABI among the different patterns was independent of those in availability and receptivity.

In sum, using both the variable-oriented approach and the person-oriented approach it has been found that different factors and different subordinate profiles are distinctly associated with the three dimensions of supervisor trust intention and

supervisor-rated job performance. Both approaches indicate that supervisors care more about subordinate ABI than about availability or receptivity.

3.5.3 Limitations and future research

There are several limitations to the studies in this chapter. The data were cross-sectional and therefore could not demonstrate causality between perceived subordinate trustworthiness and supervisor trust intentions. Future research should attempt to use a longitudinal research design or a repeated measurement design to replicate the current studies. Furthermore, although I have made an effort to collect a large sample to test the hypotheses, a convenience sample was employed in the follow-up study. Future research will benefit from collecting samples from real organisations to examine different profiles of follower trustworthiness.

The newly developed trust construct – positive expectations – needs more future empirical research to estimate its reliability and validity. Since this chapter has focused on subordinate-based trust, future research might test this construct in supervisor-based trust or peer-based trust. More research is needed to estimate the relationship between trust antecedents and positive expectations.

The person-oriented approach can also be applied to future research on trust in supervisors to estimate different patterns among supervisor trustworthiness and their effects on subordinate trust decisions. It will also be worth comparing whether the trustworthiness patterns are similar or distinct for different trust referents.

Although availability and receptivity, the specific subordinate-related trust antecedents, were found to contribute little to the three dimensions of supervisor trust intentions, it will still be worthwhile for future trust scholars to propose and test

more relationship-specific factors that influence trust. As discussed in this chapter, the three dimensions of trustworthiness (ABI) capture general aspects of a trustee. When studying trust between supervisors and subordinates, it is necessary to consider *authority ranking*, which explains whether a person is above or below another person, because authorities are often more powerful and control some factors that influence subordinate behaviour (Fiske, 1992). Therefore, studying factors influencing trust beliefs, decisions or behaviours of supervisors who are above the followers will benefit from including the relationship-specific variables.

Furthermore, the influence of trustor characteristics – such as mood or stress as temporal factors – on perceptions of trustee trustworthiness still needs further study (Jones & Shah, 2016). More generally, studies should also consider personal experience, cultural background and cognitive bias (Ferrin & Gillespie, 2010) as more stable factors related to trust intention. Past experience relates to general trust propensity (McKnight & Cummings, 1998). It can also be applied to a particular person, e.g. to measure the general past experience of a particular person or recent experience within the previous month. Cognitive bias refers to positive or negative views among an individual's own group, and has been considered as a factor influencing trust (Brewer & Brown, 1998).

After examining downward trust from a supervisor perspective, next chapter attempts to study downward trust in organisations from a follower perspective.

4 CHAPTER 4 ANTECEDENTS AND OUTCOMES OF SUBORDINATE FELT TRUST

4.1 Introduction

High-trust working relationships tend to be associated with positive employee outcomes such as work satisfaction, performance and organizational citizenship behaviour (see the meta-analyses by Colquitt et al., 2007; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; De Jong et al., 2016). An important relationship that is typically described in terms of trust is that between organizational followers (i.e. subordinates) and their leaders. Such relationships have been characterized both in terms of the extent to which subordinates trust their leader and in terms of the extent of ‘felt trust’ that subordinates believe the leader has for them (Lau et al., 2007). Previous trust research has tended to focus on the former, with substantially fewer models and empirical studies focusing on felt trust. However, coinciding with advances in the study of followers and followership in recent years, felt trust has increasingly attracted academic research interest (e.g., Brower et al., 2009; Lau et al., 2007; Lau et al., 2014). As our knowledge about employee felt trust is incomplete, theorists have called for additional attention to be paid to it (Brower, Schoorman, & Tan, 2000; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002).

Indeed, trusting and feeling trusted are fundamentally different phenomena. As mentioned previously, trust is often defined as “the willingness to be vulnerable...” (Mayer et al., 1995, p. 712) and usually takes place between two parties, namely the trustor and the trustee (Mayer et al., 1995; McKnight & Chervany, 1996). Thus, it is viewed as something that is granted or given by one individual to another. Interestingly, a trusted individual (i.e., the trustee) might not accurately perceive the

extent that a trustor is willing to be vulnerable. The term ‘felt trust’ is used to refer to the trustee’s perception of the extent that another person trusts him or her. Following the example of Lau et al. (2014), this chapter adapts the two trust domains of reliance and disclosure that were originally identified by Gillespie (2003) to describe two corresponding domains of employee felt trust. As mentioned in Chapter 2, according to Gillespie (2003, p. 10), reliance refers to “relying on another’s skills, knowledge, judgments or actions, including delegating and giving autonomy” and disclosure refers to “sharing work-related or personal information of a sensitive nature.” Thus, high employee felt trust means both that the employee feels the supervisor intends to rely on him/her and to share information with him/her.

The overarching approach to the investigation of the implications of employee felt trust places employees within the context of a leader-follower relationship, as was also done in Chapter 3. This type of relationship is often characterized as involving a series of social exchanges driven by motivations to engage in reciprocity or repayment (Blau, 1964), so that the receiving party feels an obligation to repay the giving party (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Such exchanges can involve not only tangible objects but also intangible qualities such as trust. Thus, social exchange theory is built on the assumption that receiving parties acknowledge that they are receivers. However, when exchanges involve intangibles such as trust, there is a greater potential that the receiving party is not fully aware of what has been given. This logic implies that follower felt trust is important because it suggests the extent of felt trust will more directly influence how a subordinate responds in an exchange relationship than the actual trust extended by the leader. When trust is extended by a leader to a follower but the follower does not perceive this trust, the reciprocity norm will not be activated. In the work context, this reciprocity is likely to take multiple

forms of greater efforts at in-role and extra-role job performance, which are also the focus of the current chapter.

Lau et al. (2014) call for more research on the antecedents of felt trust to better understand the conditions under which employee's experience felt trust from their supervisors. Previous felt trust research has created important insights into the roots of felt trust in organizations, identifying antecedents such as leader behaviour and demographic similarities/differences between subordinates and supervisors (Lau et al., 2007). In this chapter, the four dimensions of organizational justice, namely distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice and informational justice, are proposed as additional antecedents of employee felt trust. These justice behaviours have previously been found to relate to employees' trust in their leaders (Aryee et al., 2002; Colquitt, Lepine, Piccolo, Zapata, & Rich, 2012). However, the effect of perceived justice on an employee's felt trust has not yet been examined. As noted earlier, trusting the leader (being a trustor) and a sense of being trusted by the leader (being a trustee) are two distinct aspects of follower trust, and whether perceived justice indicates being trusted from a follower's perspective is still in need of investigation, i.e., whether perceived justice conveys a message of trust.

Along with perceived justice, perceived delegation is also proposed as an antecedent of employee felt trust. According to Bass (1990, p.437), "Delegation implies that one has been empowered by one's superior to take responsibility for certain activities". Delegation has been found to be positively related to employee job performance, job satisfaction and leader-member exchange (LMX) (Bauer & Green, 1996; Park, Sturman, Vanderpool, & Chan, 2015; Schriesheim et al., 1998). In fact, mutual reciprocity, which is embedded in social exchange theory, is developed in the process

of delegation (Bauer & Green, 1996). It is plausible to anticipate that when followers perceive that they are nominated to take responsibility for certain activities they feel that they are trusted by the management team. Therefore, this chapter posits perceived delegation as an antecedent of follower felt trust.

An additional important question this chapter attempts to answer is how employee felt trust is translated into effects on important outcomes such as performance. This is essentially a question of identifying relevant mediating variables. Lau et al. (2014) identify employee organization-based self-esteem (OBSE) as a mediator explaining the relationship between employee felt trust and job outcomes. People high in OBSE perceive themselves as “important, meaningful, effectual and worthwhile” (Pierce, Gardner, Cummings, & Dunham, 1989, p. 625). Therefore, OBSE is the overall value that employees place on themselves in their roles as organizational members (Pierce & Gardner, 2004). Lau et al. suggest that employees’ assessments of their own significance, worth and competence are influenced by their perceptions of the extent of the trust extended by a supervisor.

In this study, an additional mechanism is investigated. In addition to Lau et al.’s (2014) work on self-esteem, this chapter proposes that employee self-efficacy – another aspect of ones’ core self-evaluation – might alternatively be a mediator of the effects of felt trust on performance. To investigate self-efficacy, I have chosen in this chapter to specifically study a domain-specific form of self-efficacy called occupational self-efficacy, a construct reflecting one’s individual self-evaluated competence that is measured specifically with respect to the work context (Schyns & von Collani, 2002). While self-esteem and core self-evaluation in general refer to the valences of overall evaluations people have of themselves, occupational self-efficacy

is most directly relevant to work performance. In particular, when employees feel that they are trusted by their supervisors it will enhance their occupational self-efficacy, which in turn has been found to be a significant and salient predictor of employee in-role job performance and OCB (Rigotti, Schyns, & Mohr, 2008). Although previous studies have investigated the role of general self-efficacy as a mediator of the relationship of an employee's trust in his or her leader with positive job outcomes (Liu, Siu, & Shi, 2009), or have investigated other antecedents and outcomes of occupational self-efficacy (Felfe & Schyns, 2002), the role of felt trust has not been investigated. Hence, felt trust from a supervisor could positively influence employees' occupational self-efficacy as it could be experienced by them as positive feedback from an influential source at work.

Besides the mechanism mediating how felt trust affects outcome variables, another salient issue is the interaction between employee felt trust from the leader and employee trust in the leader. Previous trust research mostly examines the effects of trust solely based on one party's perceptions of the other. One-sided examinations of trust limit the predictive power of trust models (Korsgaard et al., 2015). Brower et al. (2009) demonstrate the importance of considering both parties in trust research, instead of solely focusing on one party. The focus has been put on the trustor in previous trust literature after Mayer et al.'s (1995) milestone paper, and especially focusing on the antecedents and outcomes of follower trust in the leader in the organizational context. However, these studies are inadequate for us to understand the interactional process between the trustor and the trustee, i.e., the influence of mutual trust which occurs when both parties having a high level of trust in the other, and asymmetric trust which occurs the two parties having different levels of trust in each other. Although in the long term a trust relationship occurs in a mutual trust

context, asymmetric trust exists in the process of building, developing and maintaining a relationship (Tomlinson et al., 2009). Given this research gap and the importance of using a bilateral approach in trust research, this chapter addresses the research question of the effects of the congruence between supervisor trust in the follower and follower trust in the leader on follower occupational self-efficacy and OBSE. Instead of assessing trust from each party in the dyad (e.g. Brower et al., 2009; De Jong & Dirks, 2012), the approach used here compare felt trust with his or her trust in the supervisor.

Unlike a traditional moderated regression analysis, which investigates the relationship between a predictor and an outcome variable at different levels of the moderator, a response surface analysis approach is used to study the effect of (in)congruence between two predictors. Response surface analysis is an emerging empirical technique that provides insights into the relationship between two predictors and a dependent variable. Results are displayed using three-dimensional graphs that depict the effects of congruence and incongruence between the two predictors and gives them more explanatory potential (Shanock, Baran, Gentry, Pattison, & Heggstad, 2010). Using this technique, the studies in this chapter will examine whether occupational self-efficacy is higher when trust in leaders and follower felt trust are both high than when both are low. Additionally, it will explore whether occupational self-efficacy is higher when felt trust exceeds trust in the leader or conversely, when trust in the leader exceeds felt trust.

In sum, the present studies make several contributions to the trust and followership literatures as well as to social exchange theory. They are among the relatively few studies which examine trust from a trustee's perspective with the goal of

demonstrating the importance of employees' felt trust in their job performance, and investigating the mediating role that occupational self-efficacy may play in this relationship. In addition, the studies also examine the conditions which might influence employee felt trust. In contrast to previous justice-theory-related research which has focused on the influence of leader justice behaviours on followers' trust (e.g. Colquitt, Lepine, Piccolo, Zapata, & Rich, 2012; Colquitt & Rodell, 2011), perceived justice is considered as an antecedent of employee felt trust, based on the argument that justice conveys the positive intentions of the supervisor to the employee. Importantly, in the second study of this chapter, trust theory is expanded by examining mutual trust and asymmetric trust simultaneously and how the congruence and incongruence of trust and being trusted are related to follower self-evaluation and job performance. Furthermore, this chapter attempts to contribute to social exchange theory by shedding light on the importance of examining how vulnerability perceived by the receiver activates receivers' reciprocal norms within a social exchange relationship.

Two empirical studies are included in this chapter to examine the conceptual model. The first study is a preliminary study that examines the model using a cross-sectional data collection to partially examine the conceptual model. That is, the preliminary study includes the relationships of interpersonal justice and informational justice with felt trust, the mediating factor of occupational self-efficacy and the three job performance outcome variables (see Figure 4.1(a)). The second study is a follow-up study that extends the preliminary study by examining the full conceptual model, using a multi-time research design (See Figure 4.1(b)).

The chapter is organised as follows. Given that the two studies involve very similar sets of variables and relationships, the overlapping theoretical framework and hypotheses are introduced in the preliminary study, followed by a results section and a discussion relevant to the preliminary study. Afterwards, new hypotheses are proposed as the theoretical framework is extended for the follow-up study. Finally, an overall discussion is provided to compare the two studies and comprehensively discuss their findings.

Figure 4.1(a) Conceptual Model of the Preliminary Study

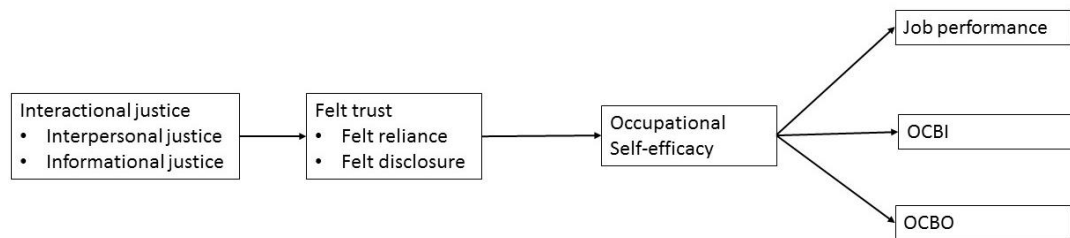
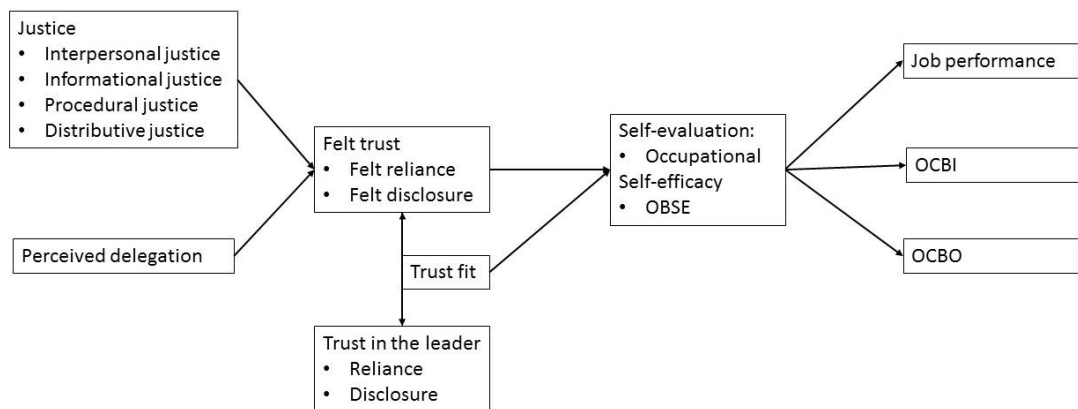


Figure 4.1(b) Conceptual model of the follow-up study



4.2 Preliminary study

4.2.1 Theoretical framework and hypotheses

4.2.1.1 Proposed Antecedents of Felt Trust

Organizational justice refers to employees' perceptions of the fairness of the treatment they get from their leaders and organizations. According to the relational model of justice (Tyler & Lind, 1992), the feeling of being treated fairly indicates the nature and quality of one's relationships with their supervisors. Indeed, perceptions of justice tend to capture the kindness and truthful intentions of the supervisor toward the subordinate. When employees perceive justice from their supervisors, they tend to believe that they can benefit from their supervisor's actions (Wu et al., 2012). Moreover, researchers suggest that justice enhances the development of social exchange relationships (Cropanzano et al., 2001; Masterson et al., 2000). For example, Masterson et al. (2000) indicate that perceived justice predicts employees' judgements of the quality of their social exchange relationship with their supervisor. Thus, I argue that this perception of higher relationship quality is reflected in feelings of being trusted by the supervisor.

Organizational justice may take a variety of forms, but the preliminary study only focuses on the two dimensions of interactional justice, i.e., interpersonal (respectful treatment) and informational justice (adequate explanation) (Colquitt et al., 2001). Previous studies have found interactional justice to be associated with employees' evaluations of their supervisor (Colquitt et al., 2001), and to enhance the quality of trust relationships between subordinates and their supervisors (Wu, Huang, Li, & Liu, 2012). Moreover, Colquitt et al. (2012, p. 4) argue that it is difficult to incur a reciprocal relationship in a context where "communications were rude, disrespectful

or inappropriate.”. Indeed, Saunders, Thornhill, and Lewis (2002) suggest that employees might feel trusted based on interpersonal treatment, when they have face-to-face communication with their supervisor or get more organizational information, receive support from their supervisor, and are valued and respected by their supervisor. Overall, the two dimensions of justice are anticipated to positively influence follower felt trust. Considering they are theoretically related, and both reflect employees’ opinions of how they are treated by their supervisors regarding perceived justice, respect, and truthfulness (Bies & Moag, 1986). Hence, these two dimensions are regarded as one factor in the preliminary study. I therefore propose:

Hypothesis 1: Interactional justice is positively related to employee felt trust from their supervisors, as indicated by the felt trust components of (a) felt reliance and (b) felt disclosure.

4.2.1.2 Employee Felt Trust and Performance Outcomes

If a supervisor extends trust to his or her employees, but the employees themselves do not feel that they are trusted, the extended trust is unlikely to be reciprocated with outputs such as increased performance. Instead, we argue that employee felt trust is more directly linked to employee performance than the actual level of trust extended by the supervisor, both for in-role job performance and extra-role behaviours. Felt trust is expected to affect employee job behaviour via reciprocity norms as suggested by social exchange theory, which theorizes that employees who feel that the leader demonstrates care and consideration are motivated to reciprocate by performing better (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002).

In-role performance. In-role job performance refers to the extent that “employees complete assigned duties on time and comply with rules and regulations” (Williams

& Anderson, 1991, p. 602). Felt trust could potentially influence in-role performance by increasing the extent to which employees are intrinsically motivated to perform. Indeed, the organizational literature suggests that supervisors can play a vital role in motivating employees by increasing employees' feelings of competence and intrinsic motivation via their interpersonal communications, positive feedback, and other forms of support (Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989). Felt trust likely signals to employees that an important person at work values them and views them as competent. Feeling competent, in turn, is one of the intrinsic motivators for job performance (Deci, 1971; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Extra-role performance. Extra-role job behaviours in the current study are defined using two broad dimensions of employee organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB): (a) OCBO, comprised of behaviours that benefit the organization in general, and (b) OCBI, comprised of behaviours that benefit specific individuals, such as colleagues, supervisors, etc. (Williams & Anderson, 1991, p. 602). Social exchange theory suggests that individuals often reciprocate trust if they feel trusted, even when it is costly (Berg, Dickhaut, & McCabe, 1995; Pillutla, Malhotra, & Murnighan, 2003). Malhotra (2004) suggests that the trusted individuals may appreciate the risks that the trustor takes to be vulnerable in the relationship and consequently feel more obligated to reciprocate or even go beyond the expectations of the trustor. Lau, Lam, and Wen (2014) argue that when employees feel that they are trusted by their supervisor as an important person in the organization, they are willing to reciprocate their supervisor's expectations, to complete extra jobs and to protect the supervisor's interest. This argument is especially likely to hold for OCBI, when the exchange might directly benefit the supervisor, but also could be true for OCBO as the supervisor to some extent may represent the organization as a whole, and thus trust

could be reciprocated in any way that benefits the organization. Thus, I propose the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 2: Employee felt trust, operationalized in terms of (a) felt reliance and (b) felt disclosure, is positively related to employee in-role job performance.

Hypothesis 3: Employee felt trust, operationalized in terms of (a) felt reliance and (b) felt disclosure, is positively related to employee OCBI.

Hypothesis 4: Employee felt trust, operationalized in terms of (a) felt reliance and (b) felt disclosure, is positively related to employee OCBO.

4.2.1.3 Occupational Self-Efficacy as a Mediator

Lau et al. (2014) demonstrate employee organization-based self-esteem (OBSE) mediates the relationship of employee felt trust with job outcomes. In this chapter, I investigate a similar intra-psychic mediating mechanism. However, in contrast to Lau et al.'s (2014) work on self-esteem, I propose that employee occupational self-efficacy also might mediate the effects of felt trust on performance. The organizational literature suggests that self-esteem and self-efficacy (along with locus of control and level of neuroticism) are components of individual core self-evaluation (Judge et al., 1997; Judge et al., 1998). Thus, a research of this second component can be helpful in eventually establishing that felt trust has implications for the core self-evaluation, which in turn has been shown to relate to a variety of organizationally relevant outcomes including employee performance and satisfaction (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998).

Self-efficacy can be assessed at several levels of specificity: as a general personality construct, as a domain-specific construct, and as a task-specific construct (Schyns &

von Collani, 2002). General self-efficacy refers to the belief in one's capabilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action needed to exercise general control over events in one's life (Judge et al., 1997; Judge et al., 1998). Compared to general self-efficacy which aggregates assessments of ones' capabilities across different life domains, occupational self-efficacy refers specifically to individuals' beliefs in their work-related capabilities (Schyns & von Collani, 2002). At a more micro level, task-related self-efficacy refers to assessments of capabilities for one specific task (e.g., writing a conference paper as opposed to generally being a good academic). Hence, occupational self-efficacy is at a medium level of generality, depicting "individual differences in self-efficacy associated with various professions and various jobs" (Schyns & von Collani, 2002, p. 221), and thus seemed to me to be at the level of specificity that was most relevant to the effects of felt trust from a supervisor.

Bandura (1994) points out that social persuasion is one of the important sources of individual self-efficacy because it strengthens people's belief that they can succeed. For followers, feeling that their work judgements and skills are relied on constitutes positive feedback or persuasion from the supervisor about their working capabilities. In addition, sharing personal beliefs or work-related sensitive information indicates a high quality of the relationship between the leader and the follower (Gillespie, 2003), which in turn is expected to enhance follower self-efficacy (Schyns & von Collani, 2002). Moreover, according to Mayer et al.'s (1995) trust definition, the trustor extends trust to the trustee building on the positive expectations of him or her. Therefore, feeling trusted by the leader also transmits the leader's high expectations of the follower. According to Eden (1990), high expectations of followers can become self-fulfilling prophecies and boost their self-efficacy. Indeed, supervisor

behaviours which communicate positive expectations or indicate positive working relationships can affect employees' self-efficacy (Natanovich & Eden, 2001; Schyns & von Collani, 2002). Drawing on these bases, I posit that followers are likely to be more confident in their capability to do their jobs – i.e. to have higher occupational self-efficacy – when felt trust is high.

The social psychological and organizational literatures suggest self-efficacy increases effort and persistence in tasks, which in turn increases performance (Bandura, 1986; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1979). This has been demonstrated empirically for job performance, both for general self-efficacy (see a meta-analysis by Sadri & Robertson, 1993) and for occupational self-efficacy (Rigotti et al., 2008). Self-efficacy is a strong internal motivator for followers, leading them to pursue higher goals and exert additional efforts (Wood & Bandura, 1989). Therefore, on the basis of previous theories and empirical results, we expect that employee occupational self-efficacy will mediate the relationship between felt trust and job outcomes.

Hypothesis 5: Employee felt trust, operationalized in terms of (a) felt reliance and (b) felt disclosure, is positively related to employee occupational self-efficacy.

Hypothesis 6: Employee occupational self-efficacy is positively related to employee performance, operationalized in terms of (a) in-role job performance and (b) OCBI and (c) OCBO.

Hypothesis 7: The relationships of employee felt reliance with employee performance, operationalized in terms of (a) in-role job performance, (b) OCBI, and (c) OCBO are mediated by occupational self-efficacy.

Hypothesis 8: The relationships of employee felt disclosure with employee performance, operationalized in terms of (a) in-role job performance, (b) OCBI, and (c) OCBO are mediated by occupational self-efficacy.

4.2.2 Method

4.2.2.1 Sample and Procedure

The participants were employed international graduates from a UK business school. They were located in various companies, including consulting companies, banks, accounting firms or the government. They were asked to complete a survey based on their working experience with their direct supervisors, following the suggestion of Mayer and Gavin (2005), who argue that the direct manager or supervisor has the greatest effect on a subordinate's daily work life, having more interactions with the employee than more senior managers.

An online survey link was sent via email to 800 graduates through the business school's alumni network, asking them to respond to one of two surveys. A reminder email was sent after one month. Potential respondents were informed that participation was voluntary, anonymous, and that their answers would only be used for research purposes. The participants were asked to complete the survey either as a leader in their workplace if they held an appropriate work role, or as a follower if they did not.

171 of the 800 potential respondents completed the leader version of the survey (i.e., to study supervisor trust in subordinates), which constitutes the preliminary study in Chapter 3. Therefore, their data were not included in the current study. The final usable sample of respondents for the follower version of the survey (i.e., the results reported here) consisted of 208 employees (57% male and 43% female) who

indicated they had a direct supervisor. Hence, the response rate in total was 47.3% and the current study represents 26% of the persons initially contacted. Nearly 80% of the participants were in the two age categories of 18-27 and 28-37. In terms of overall work experience, 43% of them had worked in their organization for less than 1 year; 24% had worked in the current organization for more than one year but less than 2 years; 22% for more than 2 years but less than 5 years; and 11% for more than 5 years. In addition, nearly half of the participants (54%) had worked for their current direct supervisor for less than 1 year, and an additional 20% of them had worked with this person for less than 2 years.

4.2.2.2 Instruments

Interactional justice. Employee justice perceptions were only measured by interactional justice in the preliminary study. Participants' perceptions of interactional justice based on their treatment by their direct supervisor at work were measured using Colquitt et al.'s (2001) 9-item scale. Ratings were made on a 6-point Likert response scale (1= Strongly disagree; 6= Strongly agree). Four items in the instrument referred to interpersonal justice and five items referred to informational justice. Sample items are "My direct supervisor treats me in a polite manner" for interpersonal justice, and "My supervisor explains the working procedure thoroughly" for informational justice.

Felt trust. Felt trust was measured using Lau et al.'s (2014) modified version of the Gillespie (2003) 10-item trust scale. Lau et al. modified this measure to refer to felt trust from the supervisor, rather than the respondent's own level of trust. The scale measures two felt trust domains: felt reliance (5 items) and felt disclosure (5 items). A sample felt reliance item is "To what extent do you think your direct supervisor

relies on your task-related skills and abilities?” A sample disclosure item is “To what extent do you think your direct supervisor shares his/her personal feelings with you?” Responses to the items were made using a 6-point Likert response format with answers ranging from 1= Not at all to 6= Very much.

Occupational self-efficacy. A six-item short version of the Schyns and von Collani (2002) 20-item occupational self-efficacy measure was used. A sample item is “When I am confronted with a problem in my job, I can usually find several solutions”. The short version of the instrument was validated by Rigotti et al. (2008), who reported a scale reliability of $\alpha=.84$. In this study, following Rigotti et al. (2008), responses were indicated on a 6-point Likert response scale (1= Not at all true, 6= Completely true).

Job performance and organizational citizenship behaviour. Participants were asked to evaluate their own in-role job behaviour (in-role job performance) and two types of extra-role job behaviour (OCBI and OCBO) using Williams and Anderson’s (1991) 21-item instrument (seven items for each type of behaviour). A 6-point Likert response scale was used (1= Strongly disagree, 6= Strongly agree). A sample item for the in-role job performance scale is “I adequately complete assigned duties”; one for the OCBO scale is “I give advance notice when unable to come to work”; and for the OCBI scale, “I go out of my way to help new employees”.

4.2.2.3 Analytical Strategy

First, descriptive statistical analyses (i.e. means, standard deviations, and correlations) were performed using scale scores constructed for each variable. The remaining analyses used a latent variable approach in a structural equation modelling (SEM) context, estimated with Mplus 7.2 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2012). Before testing

models that incorporated the structural paths relevant to hypothesis tests, measurement construct validity was first assessed using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to check the a priori assumptions about the dimensionalities of the interactional justice and employee felt trust measures, and then to assess the discriminatory validity of the full set of study variables. Testing for the proposed mediating effect followed steps suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986), supplemented by an inspection of bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals (1000 bootstrap samples) around the indirect effect estimates to test their significance.

4.2.3 Results

4.2.3.1 Preliminary Analyses

The means, SDs, and correlations for the focal variables based on scale scores are shown in Table 4.1. Coefficient alphas are reproduced along the diagonal. The reliabilities of all the variables were acceptable for research purposes, with values ranging from .69 to .91. The zero-order correlations were all in the expected direction and provided preliminary support for the hypotheses, except for non-significant correlations of OCBO with its proposed antecedent variables. Employee felt trust in terms of reliance was significantly and positively correlated with employee occupational self-efficacy ($r=.52, p<.05$), job performance ($r=.30, p<.01$), OCBI ($r=.40, p<.01$) and with OCBO ($r=.27, p<.01$). In contrast, employees' felt trust in terms of disclosure significantly correlated only with employee occupational self-efficacy ($r=.19, p<.01$) and OCBI ($r=.16, p<.05$), but not with job performance and OCBO. As Table 4.1 shows, the correlation between interpersonal justice and informational justice was moderately high ($r=.68, p<.01$). As discussed in the section of justice literature, a second-order construct – interactional justice – was

created to model the two dimensions of interactional justice in the following analyses.

More details are provided in the following section.

Table 4.1 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Focal Variables in The Preliminary Study

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1 Int. Justice	4.89	0.93	(.84)							
2 Inf. Justice	4.31	1.04	.68*	(.88)						
3 FT Reliance	4.34	0.95	.39*	.35*	(.83)					
4 FT Disclosure	3.19	1.27	.16*	.24*	.43*	(.88)				
5 Occ Self-Eff	4.61	0.67	.26*	.25*	.52*	.19*	(.84)			
6 Job Perf	4.14	0.4	.19*	.18*	.30*	.12	.37*	(.73)		
7 OCBO	3.8	0.64	.09	.09	.27*	.06	.46*	.27*	(.76)	
8 OCBI	4.46	0.71	.16*	.07	.40*	.16*	.43*	.41*	.31*	(.69)

Note. N = 208. Int. Justice = Interpersonal Justice; Inf. Justice = Informational justice; FT= Felt Trust; Occ Self-Eff = Occupational Self-Efficacy; OCBO = Organizational citizenship behaviour toward organizations; OCBI = organizational citizenship behaviour toward individuals. * $p < .05$ level (2-tailed).

4.2.3.2 Measurement model.

Following the two-step procedure suggested by Kline (2010), I first conducted a series of CFAs to test various assumptions about the measurement model before estimating the full model that included structural paths. The hierarchical higher-order construct of interactional justice using items as the indicators for the two lower level latent justice dimensions. The higher-order construct of interactional justice was supported by high and significant standardized factor loadings of the two dimensions (.95 for interpersonal justice; .81 for informational justice). The initial measurement

model consisted of seven latent constructs (i.e. interactional justice, felt reliance, felt disclosure, occupational self-efficacy, in-role job performance, OCBI and OCBO), which were allowed to freely covary with each other. The indicators for the latent constructs consisted of the 46 items from the full set of scales. However, primarily due to some conceptual overlap in responses to items relating to in-role and extra-role performance, as well as a reverse-item effect for some of the indicators for these variables, the hypothesized measurement model yielded a poorer model fit than desired ($\chi^2 (966) = 1572.04$, $CFI = .86$, $RMSEA = .06$, $SRMR = .07$) and had modification indices suggesting a need for cross-loadings among the indicators of the three performance constructs. Hence, an alternative baseline measurement model (Model 0 in Table 4.2) was specified which used the scale score values of the in-role and two extra-role performance variables as the indicators of a single higher-order factor reflecting overall employee job performance (the higher-order performance factor had standardized factor loadings of .95 for in-role job performance, .53 for OCBI and .70 for OCBO). The specification of the remaining four factors was left unchanged in this alternative model. This alternative 5-factor model fitted the data adequately ($\chi^2 (338) = 535.08$, $CFI = .93$, $RMSEA = .05$, $SRMR = .06$).

After an appropriate baseline measurement model (Model 0) had been established, I assessed the discriminant validity of the remaining focal study variables, showing that each one reflected a unique construct. This was done by specifying a series of additional models that combined relevant dimensions into a single factor, and then comparing the fit of this nested CFA model with baseline Model 0. A significant chi-square difference between the two models indicates that the model combining the constructs into a single factor fits the data significantly worse than the baseline model, thus indicating that the intended constructs are not mutually redundant.

I investigated whether a two-factor (felt reliance and felt disclosure) solution for felt trust (versus a single factor) was supported in our study by comparing the fit of Model 1 to the baseline model. Next, I compared the baseline Model 0 to Model 2, which combined all the predictors into a single factor and estimated the relationship of that factor with the performance factor. Finally, I compared the fit of a one-factor model (Model 3), which grouped all of the variables into one factor, to the baseline model. For all of these comparisons, the CFA results showed that the original five-factor model provided a better model fit. Table 4.2 reports details of the fit of the baseline and alternative measurement models, as well as the comparisons between them.

Table 4.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Alternative Measurement Models in the Preliminary Study

Model	χ^2 (df)	$\Delta\chi^2$ (Δdf)	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
Model 0: Intended 5 factors	535.08**(338)	--	.93	.05	.06
Model 1: Combining Felt Trust reliance and disclosure into 1 factor	827.27**(340)	291.92**(2)	.84	.08	.11
Model 2: 2-factor model combining all predictors into 1 factor	1798.30**(349)	1263.22**(11)	.51	.14	.15
Model 3: All items loaded on 1 factor	1961.34**(350)	1426.26**(12)	.46	.15	.16

Other features of the five-factor model also supported the measurement model: the standardized factor loadings for the indicators of the latent constructs were mostly above .50 and all were statistically significant, as Table 4.3 shows. The correlations among the latent factors ranged from .16 (for the correlation between occupational self-efficacy and felt disclosure) to .76 (for the correlation between occupational self-efficacy and overall performance). Further details of these correlations among

the latent constructs are reported in Table 4.4. Thus, the construct validity was deemed adequate to proceed to the analysis of the proposed structural relations among the variables.

Table 4.3 Standardized Factor Loadings of the 5-factor Model in the Preliminary Study

Survey items	Std. Loading	S.E.	<i>p</i>
Interactional justice (second-order factor)			
Interpersonal justice	.95	.06	.00
Informational justice	.81	.06	.00
Employee felt reliance (To what extent do you think your direct supervisor...)			
...relies on your work-related judgments?	.74	.04	.00
...relies on your task-related skills and abilities?	.68	.04	.00
...relies on you to handle important issues on his/her behalf?	.73	.04	.00
...relies on you to represent his/her work accurately to others?	.67	.05	.00
...relies on you to back him/her up in difficult situations?	.68	.05	.00
Employee felt disclosure (To what extent do you think your direct supervisor...)			
...shares his/her personal feelings with you?	.74	.04	.00
...confides in you about personal issues that are affecting his/her work?	.86	.03	.00
...discusses honestly how he/she feels about his/her work with you, even negative feelings and frustration?	.77	.04	.00
...discusses work-related problems or difficulties that could potentially be used to disadvantage him/her with you?	.68	.05	.00
...shares his/her personal beliefs with you?	.73	.04	.00
Occupational self-efficacy			
I can remain calm when facing difficulties in my job because I can rely on my ability.	.70	.04	.00
When I am confronted with a problem in my job, I can usually find several solutions.	.63	.06	.00
Whatever comes my way in my job, I can usually handle it.	.70	.05	.00
My past experiences in my job have prepared me well for my occupational future.	.59	.05	.00
I meet the goals that I set for myself in my job.	.62	.05	.00
I feel prepared for most of the demands in my job.	.70	0.04	.00
Overall job performance			
In-role job performance	.95	.03	.00
OCBI	.53	.06	.00
OCBO	.70	.04	.00

Note: OCBO=organisational citizenship behaviour toward organisations;
OCBI=organisational citizenship behaviour toward individuals.

Table 4.4 Standardized Intercorrelations Between Latent Constructs from the CFA Measurement Model in the Preliminary Study

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Interactional justice	--				
2. Felt reliance	.52**	--			
3. Felt disclosure	.23**	.46**	--		
4. Occupational self-efficacy	.34**	.63**	.16*	--	
5. Overall performance	.23**	.46**	.05	.76**	--

** $p < .001$, * $p < .05$.

4.2.3.3 Hypothesis Testing

The results from two SEM models are reported in this section. Structural model 1 (SM1) does not include the proposed mediating variable of occupational self-efficacy, and so was used to test the direct effects hypotheses H1(a) and (b) proposing effects of interactional justice on felt trust. Hypotheses H2, H3 and H4 proposed effects of employee felt trust on in-role and extra-role performance and were estimated instead using one outcome variable, i.e. overall performance, building on the measurement model demonstrated previously (see Figure 4.2). Structural model 2 (SM2) includes the occupational self-efficacy mediator variable, and so incorporates both direct and indirect effects of felt trust in the model in order to test hypotheses H5 to H8 (see Figure 3).

Although the goodness-of-fit statistic was significant ($\chi^2 (264) = 495.395$, $p < .001$), alternative indicators of fit suggested that Structural Model 1 had acceptable fit ($RMSEA = 0.07$; $CFI = 0.91$; $SRMR = 0.07$; the disturbance terms for employee felt reliance and felt disclosure were allowed to freely covary with each other.) Hypothesis 1 predicted the relationship between interactional justice and follower felt trust. Figure 4.2 shows that perceived interactional justice indeed had significant

effects on felt reliance ($\beta = .51, p < .01$) and felt disclosure ($\beta = .23, p < .01$). However, the R^2 values for felt reliance (.24) and for felt disclosure (.07) indicated that the model explained substantially more variance in felt reliance than in felt disclosure. Thus, only hypothesis 1(a) was supported.

Regarding the effects of felt trust on employee performance, employee felt reliance was significantly uniquely related to overall performance ($\beta = .59, p < .01$). However, although employee felt disclosure was found to have a significant unique effect on overall performance ($\beta = -.23, p < .05$), the direction of the relationship was negative and so did not support the hypotheses regarding the relationships between felt disclosure and performance.

Figure 4.2 Estimated Standardized Path Coefficients from Model SM1, Testing for Effects of Justice on Employee Felt Trust and Effects of Employee Felt Trust on Performance in the Preliminary Study

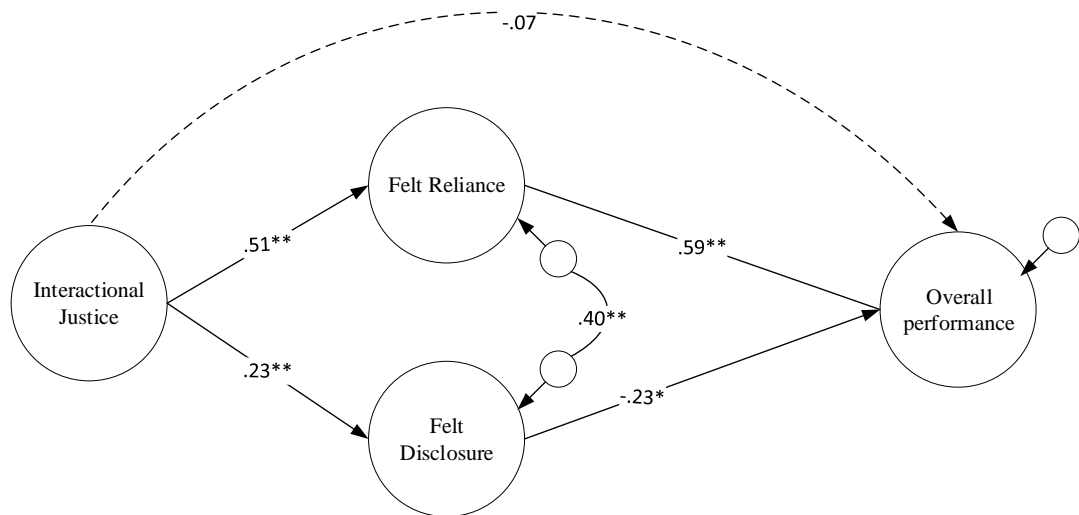
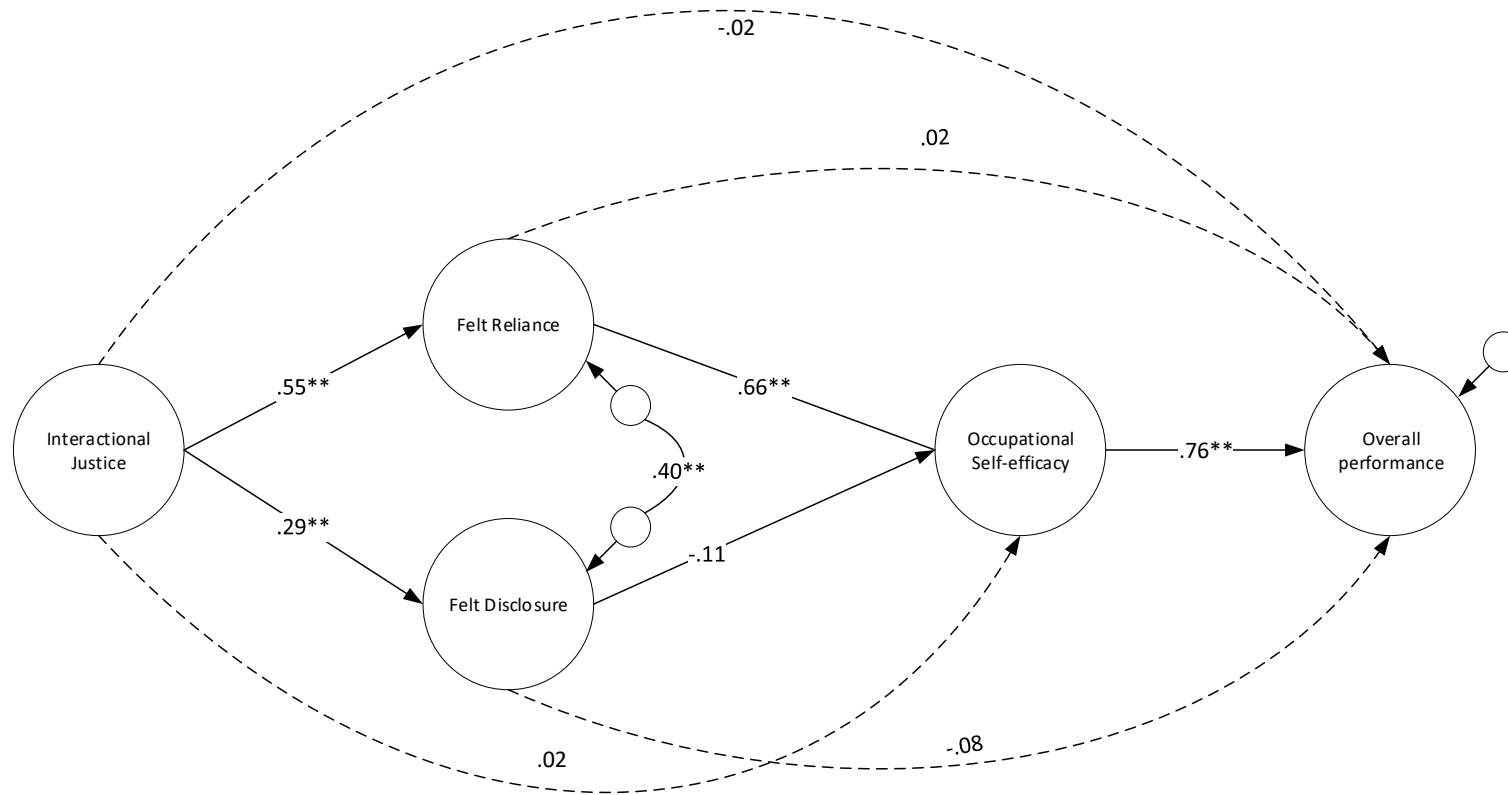


Figure 4.3 shows the results from the test of the full SEM model SM2 (i.e. including the occupational self-efficacy mediator). This model also had an acceptable fit, apart from a significant chi-square statistic ($\chi^2 (339) = 557.51, p < .001$; RMSEA = .06;

CFI=.93; SRMR=.06). Hypothesis 5 predicts that employee (a) felt reliance and (b) felt disclosure are positively related to employees' occupational self-efficacy. However, only felt reliance was found to have a significant positive effect on occupational self-efficacy ($\beta = .66, p < .01$). The hypothesis regarding felt disclosure was not supported by the results ($\beta = -.11, n.s.$). Hence, only hypothesis 5(a) was supported. As expected in hypothesis 6, the results indicated that occupational self-efficacy had a significant and positive effect on employee self-reported performance ($\beta = .76, p < .01$).

Figure 4.3 Estimated Standardized Path Coefficients from Model SM2, Testing for Effects of Justice on Employee Felt Trust and Effects of Employee Felt Trust on Performance in the Preliminary Study



Note: The dotted lines indicate non-significant paths; the solid lines indicate significant paths. $^{**}p < .01$, $^{*}p < .05$.

Table 4.5 Indirect Effect of Felt Trust on Job Performance Through Employee Occupational Self-efficacy with Bootstrapped Confidence Intervals, Preliminary Study

Mediational path	Estimate	Bootstrapped 95% Confidence Interval		Significant
		Lower Limit	Upper Limit	
Felt reliance → Occupational Self-Eff → Performance	.51	.32	.77	Yes
Felt disclosure → Occupational Self-Eff → Performance	-.08	-.23	.04	No

Hypotheses 7 and 8 predicted that employee occupational self-efficacy mediates the relationships of employee felt reliance (H7) and felt disclosure (H8) with performance. The indirect effect was tested for statistical significance using a bootstrapping technique to examine the mediating effect of occupational self-efficacy, as Table 4.5 shows. (The indirect effect is statistically significant when the confidence interval does not include 0, as indicated by the same sign for both the upper and lower bounds of the confidence interval.)

Considering the low magnitude and non-significant direct effects of felt reliance and felt disclosure on employee job performance when the occupational self-efficacy mediator was also included in the model (e.g. Baron & Kenny, 1986), employee occupational self-efficacy was found to fully mediate the relationship between employee felt reliance and employee performance, as proposed in H7 ($ab = .51$, $p < .05$). The R^2 for the prediction of employee overall performance increased substantially from SM1(.29) to SM2 (.59), with an overall change of .30, indicating that an additional 30 percent of the variation in overall performance was explained

beyond felt trust variables. However, there was no significant mediating effect of occupational self-efficacy on the relationship between employees' felt disclosure and employee performance ($ab = .02, n.s.$). Therefore, H8 was not supported.

4.2.4 Discussion of the preliminary study

The preliminary study develops a theoretical framework for felt trust based on social exchange theory. In addition, it contributes to the literature on trust and followership by developing and empirically testing a model that delineates the antecedents and outcomes of employee felt trust. More specifically, the results supported the hypothesis that interactional justice contributes to employee felt trust, providing some new information addressing the call by Lau et al. (2014) for more research examining the conditions under which employees feel trusted.

Although two dimensions of justice were proposed, they were highly correlated with each other in the analysis. Thus, the findings only support the relationship between interactional justice – a second-order factor – and follower felt trust. Interestingly, the results indicated that interactional justice had different effects on the two dimensions of follower felt trust. Although the relationship between interactional justice and follower felt disclosure was statistically significant, the small and nonsignificant r -square of follower felt disclosure indicates that the variance in follower felt disclosure was not sufficiently explained by interactional justice. This is possibly the case because interactional justice fosters social acceptance and social support, and satisfies individual needs for social belonging (Bies, 2001). In addition, givers and recipients both benefit from interactional justice due to the emotional bond that is created by interactions between the supervisor and the follower (Johnson, Lanaj, & Barnes, 2014). Therefore, I assume that due to this emotional bond

followers are inclined to believe that their supervisors have a willingness to rely on them. However, this is unrelated to their sense that leaders will disclose to them.

In addition, I found evidence supporting the idea that employee's felt trust relates to their job performance. One manner in which this perceived trust appears to have its effect is via occupational self-efficacy, as demonstrated by findings of significant mediated effects of employee felt reliance on performance. However, follower felt disclosure was negatively related with occupational self-efficacy. It might be the case that the nature of disclosure in Gillespie's definition and measurement items includes sensitive information sharing, e.g. the leader's negative feelings and frustration about work. The undesirable information might result in the follower feeling unsure about the intention of the leader, who is in a senior position. This feeling in turn negatively relates to follower self-evaluated capabilities. However, the finding needs future support from other samples or studies with a different research design.

4.2.5 Limitations of the preliminary study

Ideally, and especially to feel comfortable with the interpretation of the observed null results, the sample size should be larger than the current study's *N* of 208. The fact that all the respondents were business school alumni may limit the generalizability of the results to persons with a similar education level and holding similar types of jobs. Another limitation is the cross-sectional design of the study, which increases the potential for same-source bias and also means that there cannot be certainty about the causality of the proposed relationships. Follow-up studies should test the conceptual model by increasing the sample size and using leaders to assess the followers' performance in order to minimize same-source bias. Furthermore, cross-lagged longitudinal studies or experiments are suggested to test the proposed causal

relationships, including mediation relationships (Stone-Romero & Rosopa, 2010), which cannot be inferred with confidence from cross-sectional data (Colquitt et al., 2012).

This study would have benefitted from including further control variables, for example the industries the participants worked in, their organizational positions and hierarchical levels. Among the demographic variables that were assessed in the current study (including the length of relationship with the direct supervisor), only the supervisor's gender and age were found to be significant control variables in the preliminary analyses. However, as the results did not substantially differ when including these control variables, I have reported them without control variables here.

Only two antecedents of employee felt trust were examined in this study. This means that future studies could provide more insight into what induces follower felt trust. It might be worth considering the other two justice domains – distributive justice and procedural justice – as previous studies have found that they influence trust and trustworthiness (Colquitt, Lepine, Piccolo, Zapata, & Rich, 2012; Colquitt & Rodell, 2011), but they have not yet been examined in relation to felt trust. In addition, a positive relationship between trust and empowerment has previously been found (Yukl & Fu, 1999). Thus, future research might consider investigating other plausible antecedents e.g. perceived delegation, psychological empowerment and consultation, all of which relate to employee empowerment.

The results to some extent have contributed to answering the research questions regarding the process behind the relationship between trust and employee job behaviour, particularly between felt trust and employee job behaviour. So far, OBSE and occupational self-efficacy have both been found to mediate the relationship

between employees' felt trust and their job performance, although we do not know whether they would have unique effects if both were included in the model at the same time. Hence, follow-up studies should include both occupational self-efficacy and OBSE to test their unique effects.

4.3 Follow-up study

4.3.1 Theoretical framework and hypotheses

Based on the discussion of the preliminary study, the follow-up study extends the theoretical framework as follows:

First, in addition to interactional justice, the additional components of procedural (fair and consistent procedures) and distributive justice (the equitable distribution of outcomes) are proposed as antecedents of felt trust. This argument is embedded in a relational model which was first proposed by Tyler and Lind (1992) and then employed by Colquitt and Rodell (2011). The relational model is built on the assumption that individuals value *self-validation* in a social group and seek to be valued by their group (Colquitt & Rodell, 2011), for example, being trusted. This self-validation needs a) a belief that the intention of the authority is kind, b) an unbiased and honest decision-maker who make decisions based on factual information, and c) polite and respectful treatment (Tyler, 1989). These three points indicate that perceived justice is a signal of feeling valued by the group. Accordingly, these three sources of self-validation imply different types of organisational justice. In the preliminary study, polite and respectful treatment was proposed and tested. In the follow-up study the felt trust model is supplemented by testing the two other types of justice to capture two other sources of self-validation.

Although, the theoretical distinctiveness of the four dimensions has been demonstrated (e.g., Colquitt et al. 2001; Colquitt et al., 2015), they are highly correlated in empirical studies (see a meta-analysis by Colquitt et al., 2013). Thus, Colquitt et al. (2015) suggest using a higher-order factor to model justice, and this method is appropriate if distinctions between justice dimensions are not the research priorities. Therefore, a global construct of justice is used to depict employee perceptions of supervisor-focused justice. Hence, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 9: Employee overall justice perception is positively related to employee felt trust from supervisor, as indicated by the felt trust components of (a) felt reliance and (b) felt disclosure.

Second, another important antecedent of employee felt trust, particularly the component of felt reliance, is perceived delegation. Delegation involves authorizing and empowering employees to allow the subordinate to take responsibility without prior approval from the leader (Yukl, 1998). A supervisor has willingness to delegate to a particular subordinate when this subordinate has high work competence and a strong exchange relationship with the supervisor (Yukl & Fu, 1999). Hence, delegation is a process in which mutual reciprocity and trust are developed (Bauer & Green, 1996). Delegation involves risks (Werbel & Lopes Henriques, 2009). When delegation is acknowledged by the follower, the risks that the leader takes will be perceived and the follower is likely to feel the leader's willingness to be vulnerable. Meanwhile, the supervisor provides positional and informational resources to the subordinate to help develop his or her ability, which in return is interpreted by the subordinate as support and development (Schriesheim et al., 1998). Hence, it is

plausible to assume that perceived delegation is positively related to employee felt trust.

Hypothesis 10: Employee perceived delegation is positively related to employee felt reliance.

Third, based on the finding that felt disclosure was negatively related to follower occupational self-efficacy and the discussion in the preliminary study, the negative relationship of these two constructs is expected in the follow-up study. Therefore, unlike the hypothesis 5 in the preliminary study which predicts the positive relationships between the two components of felt trust – (a) felt reliance and (b) felt disclosure – and follower occupational self-efficacy, a new hypothesis is proposed in the follow-up study:

Hypothesis 11: The two dimensions of employee felt trust have different effects on occupational self-efficacy, such that (a) felt reliance is positively related to employee occupational self-efficacy; and (b) felt disclosure is negatively related to employee occupational self-efficacy.

Fourth, as an overall performance variable best fits the preliminary study, in the follow-up study, the same procedure will be followed to specify an overall performance variable. Hence, the hypotheses (i.e., H2 to H4 and H6 to H8) in the preliminary study assuming separate relationships between the three components of employee job performance and other focal variables are modified as following:

Hypothesis 12: Employee felt trust, operationalized in terms of (a) felt reliance and (b) felt disclosure, is positively related to employee overall job performance.

Hypothesis 13: Employee occupational self-efficacy is positively related to employee overall job performance.

Hypothesis 14: The relationships between employee felt trust, operationalized in terms of (a) felt reliance and (b) felt disclosure and employee overall job performance are mediated by occupational self-efficacy.

Fifth, given the crucial role of organisation-based self-esteem (OBSE) in understanding how felt trust influences employee job performance as discussed in Lau et al.'s (2014) study, in addition to occupational self-efficacy the follow-up study considers the influence of OBSE. It was included in the follow-ups study as an additional mediator in order to determine whether I still found effects for occupational self-efficacy. Specifically, the unique role of occupational self-efficacy and its additive contribution to understanding the relationship between felt trust and performance will be further demonstrated after including OBSE in the study. Furthermore, including both employee occupational self-efficacy and OBSE extends previous research, e.g., Lau et al.'s (2014) study, by examining and comparing the effects of employee felt trust on the two components of employees' core self-evaluation at the same time.

Sixth, the follow-up study extends the preliminary study by adopting a bilateral approach to address research questions about how trust and being trusted jointly influence employee job performance. Before demonstrating the importance of follower felt trust in the bilateral approach, it is necessary to introduce different bilateral approaches, i.e., the mutual trust approach (e.g. Brower et al, 2009), the reciprocal trust approach (e.g., Serva et al., 2005) and the congruence or asymmetrical approach (e.g. Tomlinson et al., 2009) (for a review, see Korsgaard et

al., 2014), of which the third is most relevant to the follow-up study. *Mutual trust* refers to the complementary trust that parties have for one another, with each perceiving that the other is aware of his or her intention (Deutsch, 1958; Serva et al., 2005). An equivalent level of trust between the two parties underlines the mutual trust approach. Serva et al. (2005) differentiate reciprocal trust from mutual trust, and define “reciprocal trust as the trust that results when a party observes the actions of another and reconsiders [his or her] attitudes and subsequent behaviours based on those observations” (p. 627). Additionally, the levels of trust each party has in the other are not necessarily equivalent in the reciprocal trust approach. The *reciprocal trust* approach requires studies to measure party A’s trust in party B and party B’s reaction to party A’s trust (Serva et al., 2005). However, although Serva et al. (2005) acknowledge the overlap between mutual trust and reciprocal trust, the relationship between these two trust approaches is overlooked. It is plausible to argue that mutual trust is the result of reciprocal trust, that is, low mutual trust or high mutual trust is established after action-reaction circles in the reciprocal trust process. Alternatively, mutual trust may be considered as a static representation (Serva et al., 2005) that captures the trust levels at a particular moment in the reciprocal process. Both approaches focus on the trustor’s perceptions in the process. As discussed in Section 4.1, the important thing is for trust to be felt. I posit that before party B has a reaction to party A, an important factor in this process that is disregarded in Serva et al.’s model is the extent that party B perceives party A’s trust, which is depicted as felt trust in this chapter. Therefore, embracing felt trust in the bilateral approach is important. In particular, investigating follower felt trust and trust in the leader captures the mutual trust level in a reciprocal trust process.

The third bilateral approach is the *trust congruence approach* proposed by Tomlinson, Dineen and Lewicki (2009), which is similar to the mutual trust approach in that both embrace B's trust in A and A's trust in B. However, in Tomlinson et al.'s (2009) conceptual paper the congruence approach categorizes trust between the trustor (A) and the trustee (B) into nine different levels of congruence and incongruence. They visualize the nine categories of mutual trust with a two-dimensional graph in which the X-axis represents three levels of B's trust in A (low, moderate and high) and the Y-axis represents three levels of A's trust in B. There are three levels of congruence trust – namely low, moderate and high – in which both X and Y are low, medium or high simultaneously. There are two levels of high incongruent trust: when A's trust in B is high while B's trust in A is low and vice versa. The other four levels of incongruence trust are types of moderate incongruence trust, in which the differences between the two levels of trust are smaller. Tomlinson et al. (2009) propose that trust congruence is a stronger predictor of joint behavioural outcomes in an integrative negotiation, e.g. an information exchange or exchange of benefits. However, the propositions in their paper need empirical evidence.

This chapter will adopt a congruence approach, as it combines mutual trust and asymmetric trust. There are a variety of ways in which a congruence approach could be investigated with respect to trust. In the current study, trust congruence is investigated via a comparison of follower felt trust with follower trust in the leader. Specifically, high trust congruence denotes that the level of follower trust in the leader is high and simultaneously the follower perceives that his or her leader also extends high trust to her. Low trust congruence refers to a combination of low felt trust and low trust in the leader. Felt trust has been found to be positively related

with follower occupational self-efficacy and job performance in the preliminary study and with OBSE in Lau et al.'s (2014) study. In addition, employee self-efficacy and OBSE have been found positively related to trust in the leader (e.g., Liu et al., 2009). Furthermore, Brower et al. (2009) found that trust in the leadership is more strongly related to employee OCBs when trust in the follower was also higher. Therefore, I assume that the outcome variables, i.e., OBSE and follower occupational self-efficacy, are higher when trust in the leader and felt trust from the leader are both high. This assumption lays the foundation for benefits of high congruence between followers' trust in the leader and follower felt trust from the leader.

When followers' trust in the leadership and felt trust are highly congruent and at a high level, they would believe that the quality of the relationship with their leaders is high. Indeed, in this type of relationship, the followers are more likely to be given more opportunities to perform tasks and then gain master experience (Schyns, 2004; Schyns et al., 2005) than the followers whose trust in the leader and felt trust are highly congruent but at a low level. In addition, as discussed previously, feedbacks from a leader influence a follower's evaluation of his or her occupational self-efficacy and follower felt trust is discussed as a format of positive feedbacks. If the feedbacks are negative and also from a leader that the follower does not trust, they might destroy the confidence of the follower in his or her working capabilities. The same logic can be applied to the relationship of trust congruence with follower OBSE, which depicts followers' general evaluation of their significance and value in the organisation. Hence, my hypotheses regarding trust congruence are as follows:

Hypothesis 15: Employee (a) occupational self-efficacy and (b) OBSE will be higher when the congruence between employee felt reliance and reliance on the leader at a higher level than at a lower level.

Hypothesis 16: Employee (a) occupational self-efficacy and (b) OBSE will be higher when the congruence between employee felt disclosure and disclosure with the leader at a higher level than at a lower level.

The trust congruence method not only considers the trust congruence, it also investigates trust incongruence between two parties. In Tomlin et al.'s (2009) model, the influence of the direction of trust incongruence is not considered, but will be considered in the chapter. More specifically, the discussion of trust incongruence in this chapter is embedded in person-environment (P-E) fit theory. P-E fit refers to “the congruence, match, similarity or correspondence between the person and the environment” (Edwards & Shipp, 2007, p. 211). Supplementary fit and complementary fit are two main subfields in the P-E fit research area. Supplementary fit research aims to study how a person “supplements, embellishes, or possesses characteristics which are similar to other individuals” (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987, p. 269), while complementary fit studies focus on the congruence between what one party wants and what the other party (person or organization) provides (Edwards & Shipp, 2007). Given the complementary nature of mutual trust, the follow-up study in this chapter will follow a complementary fit approach to study trust incongruence and will investigate the distinct effects of different directions of incongruence between follower felt trust and trust in the leader, i.e. it will examine the influence of trust incongruence when felt trust is higher than trust in the leader and the opposite situation.

Based on complementary P-E fit theory, employees seek feedback, recognition and rewards (Edwards & Shipp, 2007; Edwards, 1991; Marstand, Martin, & Epitropaki, 2016). The leader's fulfilment of an employee's need contributes to positive interpersonal relationships (Liden, Wayne, & Stilwell, 1993). When applying P-E fit theory to trust studies, follower felt trust denotes trust as it is perceived to be received from the leader. As discussed previously, mutual trust is embedded in the assumption of equivalent trust levels between the two trust parties. When followers extend trust to their leaders, it is plausible to assume that the followers expect the same level of trust from their leaders. Hence, the situation in which the level of felt trust is higher than that of trust in the leader implies that the follower receives more trust than he or she expects. This situation is hypothesized to positively relate to follower self-efficacy, OBSE and performance. This assumption is coherent with P-E fit theory in that when the supply (of trust) is higher than the demand, employees are likely to feel valued and a sense of self-efficacy (Edwards, 2002). In addition, the discussion in the preliminary study suggested that felt trust may be more strongly correlated with outcome variables than trust in the leader. Following the mediation mechanism that is supported by the studies reported earlier in this document, occupational self-efficacy and OBSE are hypothesised to mediate the relationship between trust fit and follower job performance. Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed regarding the match between trust and felt trust:

Hypothesis 17: Employee (a) occupational self-efficacy and (b) OBSE will be higher when employee felt reliance is higher than reliance on the leader, compared to when reliance on the leader is higher than felt reliance.

Hypothesis 18: Employee (a) occupational self-efficacy and (b) OBSE will be higher when employee felt disclosure is higher than disclosure with the leader, compared to when disclosure with the leader is higher than felt disclosure.

Hypothesis 19: The relationship between the fit of employee felt reliance-reliance on the leader and employee job performance is mediated by (a) occupational self-efficacy and (b) OBSE.

Hypothesis 20: The relationship between the fit of employee felt reliance-reliance on the leader and employee OCBO is mediated by (a) occupational self-efficacy and (b) OBSE.

Hypothesis 21: The relationship between the fit of employee felt reliance-reliance on the leader and employee OCBI is mediated by (a) occupational self-efficacy and (b) OBSE.

Hypothesis 22: The relationship between the fit of employee felt disclosure-disclosure with the leader and employee in-role job performance is mediated by (a) occupational self-efficacy and (b) OBSE.

Hypothesis 23: The relationship between the fit of employee felt disclosure-disclosure with the leader and employee OCBI is mediated by (a) occupational self-efficacy and (b) OBSE.

Hypothesis 24: The relationship between the fit of employee felt disclosure-disclosure with the leader and employee OCBI is mediated by (a) occupational self-efficacy and (b) OBSE.

4.3.2 Method

4.3.2.1 Sample and procedure

The participants for this study were recruited by the same panel company – Respondi. Respondents were asked to complete three short surveys in two months, and they were paid £1.5 after completing each of them. In the first wave of the survey, 928 participants were recruited, 500 (53.9%) of whom met the inclusion criteria that they were employees aged between 18 to 65, had more than 3 months working experience in the United Kingdom, and worked for a direct supervisor. In addition, this sample excluded the respondents who failed the data screening criteria as detailed in Chapter 3, section 3.4.2., e.g., careless respondents, etc. In the first survey, they were asked to answer questions relating to the five antecedents and the two components of felt trust, i.e. felt reliance and felt disclosure. After three weeks, the same participants were invited to complete the second survey, which was about mediators, that is, occupational self-efficacy and OBSE. 382 participants completed the second survey, which represented a response rate of 76.4%. The third survey was sent to the participants three weeks after they finished the second one. In the third survey, the participants were asked to evaluate their in-role and extra-role job performance. Finally, 302 participants completed all three surveys, which represented a response rate of 79.08%.

Among the 302 participants who completed all three surveys, 38.6% were male and 61.4% were female. The average age of the participants was 47.57. The average working experience of the participants was 8.79 years. They had worked for their current direct supervisor for 3.56 years on average. 27.1% of the participants worked

in the service sector, 15.7% in retailing, 9.3% in industry, 9% in education, and 0.3% in agriculture.

Chi-square analyses on gender and the work sector (categorical variables) and independent t-tests on age, job tenure and relationship tenure (continuous variables) were conducted to compare the three samples to examine whether there were significant differences between the three groups of participants in terms of demographic variables. No significant differences were found between the three groups regarding gender ($\chi^2(1) = .13, p > .05$) and sector ($\chi^2(5) = 7.12, p > .05$) based on chi-square tests. Similarly, no significant differences were found between the three groups regarding age ($t(194) = -1.90, p > .05$), tenure ($t(196) = .81, p > .05$) and relationship tenure ($t(197) = .79, p > .05$) based on a t-test.

4.3.2.2 Instruments

The measures and format were identical to those used in the preliminary study, except for the measurement of organizational citizenship behaviours (OCBs). This new measure, and the other new constructs used in the follow-up study are as follows.

Distributive and procedural justice were measured using Colquitt's (2001) 11-item scale. Participants were asked to rate the outcomes received from their supervisors and the procedures they used regarding pay, rewards, evaluation, promotion and assignments. Each item was rated on a 5-point scale with options ranging from 1 ("To a very small extent") to 5 ("To a very large extent"). An example item for procedural justice is "To what extent are you able to express your views and feelings during those procedures?" and for distributive justice "To what extent do those outcomes reflect the effort that you have put into your work?"

Perceived delegation was measured using a 6-item scale from Schriesheim et al., (1998), with a 5-point Likert Scale, ranging from 1 (“Never”) to 5 (“Always”). An example item is “My supervisor encourages me to determine for myself the best way to carry out an assignment to accomplish a task.”

Organisation-based self-esteem was measured using 10 items generated by Pierce et al. (1989). Respondents were asked to evaluate the extent to which they are valuable, worthwhile and effective in their workplace using a 5-point response scale ranging from 1 (“Strongly disagree”) to 5 (“Strongly agree”). A sample item is “I count in my organisation.”

Organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB) were measured using a 16-item scale by Lee and Allen (2002), who argue that the OCB measurement from Williams and Anderson (1991) that was used in the preliminary study contains workplace deviance behaviours (WDB), which are defined as behaviours that “violate significant organisational norms, and in so doing threaten the well-being of the organisation and/or its members” (Robinson and Bennett, 1995, p. 556). To avoid overlap with WDB, the follow-up study used Lee and Allen’s (2002) measurement scale. This measurement scale also distinguishes between OCBI and OCBO, with 8 items for each of the components. A sample item for OCBI is “I go out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group” and for OCBO “I express loyalty toward the organisation.” Respondents chose from 7 response options ranging from 1 (“never”) to 7 (“always”).

4.3.2.3 Analytical Strategy

In addition to the analytical procedure used in the preliminary study, hypothesis testing in the follow-up study employed variables measured at different points in

time to address to some extent the issue of common method variance which arose in the preliminary study. The four parts of the hypothesized model were examined at three different times: perceived delegation and employee felt trust at time 1, employee occupational self-efficacy and OBSE at time 2, and employee job performance at time 3. Only Hypotheses 5 through 8 in the preliminary were kept in the follow-up study. Hypotheses 9 through 22 were newly proposed. Hypothesis 5 to hypothesis 14 were examined using regression analysis with structural equation modelling.

Hypotheses 15 to 22 involved assessing whether the congruence between trust and felt trust influenced occupational self-efficacy and OBSE and the mediating role of these two variables on the relationships between trust (in)congruence and employee job performance variables. These hypotheses were examined by first estimating polynomial regression models containing a set of five predictors, namely: trust and felt trust main effects (b_1 and b_2), their quadratic (squared) effects (b_3 and b_5), and a product term (b_4), then using the coefficients from these estimations to conduct response surface analysis (Edward et al., 2002). (The trust and felt trust variables were centred at the midpoint of the response scale before being analysed.) According to Edwards (2002), b_1+b_2 and $b_3+b_4+b_5$ respectively represent the slope and the curvature of the surface along the congruence line, while b_1-b_2 and $b_3-b_4+b_5$ respectively represent the slope and the curvature of the surface along the incongruence line. The procedure was conducted following the instructions and the syntax on Jefferey Edward personal website (<http://public.kenan-flagler.unc.edu/faculty/edwardsj>) using SPSS 22.

To support the hypotheses predicting the direct effects of trust congruence/incongruence on employee OBSE or occupational self-efficacy (i.e., H15 to H18), a positive slope and non-significant curvature would be expected along both the congruence line and the incongruence line to indicate a positive and linear relationship between trust congruence/incongruence and employee self-assessment. Alternatively, when the curvature is significant, the surface would be monotonically increasing along the congruence and incongruence lines, indicating that the level of the hypothesized outcome variables increases at an increasing rate in the hypothesized direction.

To examine the hypotheses predicting the mediating role of employee self-assessment (i.e., H19 to H24), since trust fit involved five terms in the quadratic equation, a latent formative variable was used to cumulate the effects of all of them into a single variable in the following mediation examinations. A latent formative variable is a composite of the causality flowing from its set of indicators (Coltman, Devinney, Midgley, & Venaik, 2008). The five quadratic variables were specified as the indicators to the latent formative construct. Thus, it was possible to estimate a single path from the trust fit latent construct to the mediators and outcome variables. As in the preliminary study, the mediation tests followed the steps proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986), and were supplemented with bootstrapped confidence intervals based on a 10,000-bootstrap sample. In this step, the estimates were calculated using Mplus 7.2 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2015).

After estimates were calculated in each step, a three-dimensional figure was created to display each hypothesized relationship, using MYSTAT 13.1, a free student version of SYSTAT.

4.3.3 Results

4.3.3.1 Preliminary Analyses

The means, SDs, Cronbach's α and correlations for the focal variables are shown in Table 4.6. Cronbach's alphas are reproduced on the diagonal. The reliabilities of all the variables were acceptable for research purposes, with values ranging from .86 to .96. The zero-order correlations were all in the expected direction and provided preliminary support for the hypotheses. As Table 4.6 shows, the four dimensions of justice were highly correlated with each other. As discussed in the preliminary study, due to the high correlations among the four dimensions, a global construct of justice was created to depict employee perceptions of supervisor-focused justice. The details of this construct are provided in the following section.

Table 4.6 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Focal Variables in the Follow-up Study

	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1 T1_Int jus	4.00	.89	(.92)													
2 T1_Pro jus	3.21	.90	.67**	(.91)												
3 T1_Inf jus	3.42	.98	.68**	.71**	(.91)											
4 T1_Dis ju	3.07	1.14	.49**	.69**	.59**	(.96)										
5 T1_Deleg	3.06	.90	.44**	.51**	.45**	.39**	(.86)									
6 T1_Felt re	4.19	1.13	.37**	.45**	.43**	.33**	.66**	(.86)								
7 T1_Felt dis	2.82	1.34	.29**	.35**	.36**	.26**	.36**	.45**	(.90)							
8 T1_Reli	4.18	1.27	.62**	.57**	.70**	.51**	.39**	.42**	.37**	(.94)						
9 T1_Disc	3.18	1.12	.41**	.47**	.50**	.39**	.43**	.49**	.66**	.58**	(.89)					
10 T2_OBSE	3.62	.77	.34**	.45**	.32**	.45**	.39**	.37**	.22**	.34**	.32**	(.93)				
11 T2_OSE	4.80	.78	.10	.20**	.20**	.13*	.31**	.38**	.09	.09	.20**	.39**	(.89)			
12 T3_JP	4.23	.41	.15*	.18**	.19**	.11	.21**	.29**	.18**	.15*	.19**	.21**	.20**	(.76)		
13 T3_OCBI	4.89	1.13	.03	.14*	.07	.06	.25**	.31**	.19**	.01	.07	.23**	.30**	.29**	(.89)	
14 T3_OCBO	4.03	1.25	.21**	.32**	.21**	.26**	.30**	.26**	.13*	.15**	.21**	.47**	.34**	.14*	.58**	(.89)

Note. Int jus= interpersonal justice; Pro jus = procedural justice; Inf jus = informational justice; Dis jus = distributive justice; Deleg = perceived delegation; Felt re= felt reliance; Felt dis = felt disclosure; Reli = reliance on the leader; Disc = disclosure with the leader; OBSE = organisation-based self-esteem; OSE = occupational self-efficacy; JP = in-role job performance; OCBO = Organizational citizenship behaviour toward organizations; OCBI = organizational citizenship behaviour toward individuals. Where relevant, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient is reported on the diagonal in parentheses.

* $p < .05$ level (2-tailed).

4.3.3.2 Tests of the Measurement Model Assumptions

As discussed in the preliminary study, a series of CFAs were first conducted to test the measurement model and construct validity before proceeding with the hypothesis testing. Before examining the CFAs, the higher-order factors were first specified to deal with the high correlations between the justice dimensions, and similarly, between the performance dimensions. First, a second-order latent variable was created to model perceived justice, using informational, interpersonal, procedural and distributive justice as lower-order indicators. The higher-order justice factor had high and significant standardized factor loadings of .93 for procedural justice, .85 for informational justice, .77 for distributive justice and .75 for interactional justice. As hypothesized in the follow-up study, another higher-order construct – overall performance – was created using the scale scores for in-role job performance, OCBO and OCBI as the indicators. The factor loadings for these three variables were .43, .79 and .71 respectively. The results for the measurement model (the baseline model – Model 0 in Table 4.7), which contained one justice variable, perceived delegation, two dimensions of employee felt trust, occupational self-efficacy, OBSE and one overall performance variable, indicated that the model fitted the data well, $\chi^2(1452) = 2671.81$, $p < .001$, $\chi^2/df = 1.84$, $CFI = .91$, $RMSEA = .05$, $SRMR = .07$.

To further analyse the distinctiveness of the two dimensions of felt trust and the two self-evaluation factors, two more 6-factor CFAs were conducted. Thus, two alternative CFA models were specified by first combining felt reliance and felt disclosure into one factor (Model 1) and then combining occupational self-efficacy and OBSE into one factor (Model 2). Finally, all the variables were combined into one factor (Model 3). The results of each alternative model and the comparison

results are reported in Table 4.7. The comparison results indicate that the original seven-factor model (Model 0) provided better model fit, with a significantly lower chi-square value and higher values of the other model fit indices. Moreover, inspection of the factor loadings indicated that all of them were significant (the standardized loadings ranged from .43 to .93, see Table 4.8 for details). The correlations (see the details in Table 4.9) among the latent factors ranged from .21 (between justice and occupational self-efficacy) to .53 (OBSE and overall performance).

Table 4.7 Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Alternative Measurement Models in the Follow-up Study

Model	$\chi^2(df)$	$\Delta\chi^2(\Delta df)$	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
Model 0: Original 7 factors	2671.81**(1452)	--	.91	.05	.07
Model 1: Combining felt reliance and felt disclosure into 1 factor	3048.57**(1458)	37619**(6)	.87	.06	.08
Model 2: Combining occupational self-efficacy and OBSE into 1 factor	3399.46**(1458)	727.65**(6)	.85	.07	.08
Model 3: all items loaded on 1 factor	7696.23**(1480)	5024.42**(28)	.52	.12	.14

Table 4.8 Standardized Factor Loadings of the CFA Model in the Follow-up Study

Survey items	Std. Loading	S.E.	<i>p</i>
Interactional justice (second-order factor)			
Interpersonal justice	.76	.03	.00
Informational justice	.85	.02	.00
Procedural justice	.93	.02	.00
Distributive justice	.77	.03	.00
Perceived delegation (My supervisor...)			
...encourages me to determine for myself the best way to carry out an assignment or accomplish a task.	.73	.03	.00
...encourages me to take the initiative to resolve work problems on my own.	.70	.03	.00
...delegates to me the authority to make important decisions and implement them without his/her prior approval.	.74	.03	.00
...asks me to take primary responsibility for planning a major activity or project for the work unit.	.68	.04	.00
...delegates to me the responsibility for administrative tasks previously handled by himself or herself.	.58	.04	.00
...allows me to decide when to do the different work activities in my job.	.67	.04	.00
...lets me monitor the quality of my work and correct an error or defect by myself.	.62	.04	.00
Employee felt reliance (To what extent do you think your direct supervisor...)			
...relies on your work-related judgments?	.64	.04	.00
...relies on your task-related skills and abilities?	.63	.04	.00
...relies on you to handle important issues on his/her behalf?	.85	.02	.00
...relies on you to represent his/her work accurately to others?	.81	.03	.00
...relies on you to back him/her up in difficult situations?	.65	.04	.00
Employee felt disclosure (To what extent do you think your direct supervisor...)			
...shares his/her personal feelings with you?	.84	.02	.00
...confides in you about personal issues that are affecting his/her work?	.84	.02	.00
... honestly discusses how he/she feels about his/her work with you, even negative feelings and frustration?	.76	.03	.00
...discusses work-related problems or difficulties that could potentially be used to disadvantage him/her with you?	.73	.03	.00
...shares his/her personal beliefs with you?	.79	.03	.00

Table 4.8 Continued

	Std. Loading	S.E.	<i>p</i>
Occupational self-efficacy			
I can remain calm when facing difficulties in my job because I can rely on my ability.	.70	.04	.00
When I am confronted with a problem in my job, I can usually find several solutions.	.63	.06	.00
Whatever comes my way in my job, I can usually handle it.	.70	.05	.00
My past experiences in my job have prepared me well for my occupational future.	.59	.05	.00
I meet the goals that I set for myself in my job.	.62	.05	.00
I feel prepared for most of the demands of my job.	.70	0.04	.00
Organisation-based self-esteem			
I count in my organisation.	.82	.02	.00
I am taken seriously in my organisation.	.81	.02	.00
I am important in my organisation.	.83	.02	.00
I am trusted in my organisation.	.76	.03	.00
There is faith in me in my organisation.	.82	.02	.00
I can make a difference in my organisation.	.73	.03	.00
I am valuable in my organisation.	.88	.02	.00
I am helpful in my organisation.	.60	.04	.00
I am efficient in my organisation.	.50	.05	.00
I am cooperative in my organisation.	.51	.05	.00
Overall job performance			
In-role job performance	.42	.07	.00
OCBI	.79	.05	.00
OCBO	.71	.05	.00

Table 4.9 Standardized Correlations Between the Latent Variables in the Follow-up Study

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. T1_Justice	--						
2. T1_Delegation	.61**	--					
3. T1_Felt reliance	.47**	.76**	--				
4. T1_Felt disclosure	.41**	.39**	.57**	--			
5. T2_Occupational self-efficacy	.21**	.35**	.40**	.10	--		
6. T2_OBSE	.51**	.46**	.41**	.25**	.38**	--	
7. T3_Overall performance	.31**	.40**	.41**	.22**	.49**	.52**	--

4.3.3.3 Hypothesis testing

Structural equation modelling was used to test the hypotheses. Three models were specified to examine the relationships between the predictors, the mediators and the outcome variables. The first SEM (M1, in Table 4.10) was specified to replicate the preliminary study but used a full measurement scale to capture follower perceived justice. OBSE was included in the second SEM (M2) to examine the unique effects of OBSE and employee occupational self-efficacy. The third SEM (M3) was specified to examine the unique effects of justice and follower perceived delegation. Maximum-likelihood standardized path estimates for these models are presented in Table 4.10.

As M1 in the table shows, employee perceived justice at Time 1 had a positive effect on follower felt reliance at Time 1, $\beta = .43$, $p < .01$ and follower felt disclosure at Time1, $\beta = .45$, $p < .01$. Thus, Hypotheses 9 (a) and (b) were supported. Hypothesis 11 posited a positive relationship between employee felt reliance and occupational self-efficacy (a), but a negative relationship between felt disclosure and occupational

self-efficacy (b). M1 in Table 4.10 indicates that employee felt reliance at Time 1 was uniquely and positively related with occupational self-efficacy at Time 2, $\beta = .43$, $p < .01$; follower felt disclosure was negatively related with occupational self-efficacy, $\beta = -.15$, $p < .05$. Thus, Hypothesis 11 (a) and (b) were both supported. Hypothesis 12 predicted the direct effect of felt trust on employee performance. As M1 shows, the unique and direct effect of felt reliance at Time 1 on employee overall performance at Time 3 was positive and significant, $\beta = .23$, $p < .01$. The unique effect of follower occupational self-efficacy at Time 2 on follower overall performance at Time 3 was high and significant, $\beta = .43$, $p < .01$. Hence, Hypothesis 13 was supported. Hypotheses 14 anticipated that occupational self-efficacy would mediate the relationship between follower felt trust and performance. The significance test of the indirect effects was examined using bias-corrected bootstrapping with 1000 samples generated. In M1, the indirect effect of felt reliance at Time 1 on employee overall job performance at Time 3 via occupational self-efficacy at Time 2 was .18 and the 95% confidence intervals were [.06, .30], while the indirect effect of felt disclosure on job performance was non-significant ($ab = .06$, [-.14, .01]). So far, the results from the preliminary study have been replicated in the follow-up study.

Table 4.10 Standardized Path Coefficients of the Three SEM Models for Hypothesis Testing in the Follow-up Study

	T1_Felt reliance			T1_Felt disclosure			T2_Occ self-efficacy			T2_OBSE			T3_Overall performance		
	M1	M2	M3	M1	M2	M3	M1	M2	M3	M1	M2	M3	M1	M2	M3
R_Tenure	0	0	-.02	-.01	.14*	.14*	.10	.11	.10	--	.09	.09	.05	.04	.03
Age	.02	.02	.03	-.12*	-.03	-.03	.10	.10	.10	--	.05	.05	0	-.03	-.03
Gender	-.13*	-.13*	-.13*	.04	.10	.10	-.02	-.01	-.02	--	.10	-.02	.23**	.18*	.18*
T1_Justice	.53**	.51**	.03	.45**	.43**	.25**	.06	.07	-.01	-	.41**	.30**	.02	-.03	-.04
T1_Delegation	--	--	.77**	--	--	.30**	--	--	.13	--	--	.12	--	--	.02
T1_Felt reliance	--	--	--	--	--	--	.42**	.47**	.40*	--	.29**	.21*	.23*	.17	.15
T1_Felt disclosure	--	--	--	--	--	--	-.15*	-.21*	-.19	--	-.06	0	.10	.07	.07
T2_Occ self-efficacy	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	.43*	.37**	.38**
T2_OBSE	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	.29**	.29**
R-square	.28**	.28**	.61**	.21**	.21**	.22**	.22**	.22**	.21**	--	.35**	.35**	.37**	.42**	.42**

Note: R_Tenure = relationship tenure; Occ self-efficacy = occupational self-efficacy; OBSE = organisation-based self-esteem.

*p<.05, **p<.01.

After adding OBSE into the model, in M2 the unique effect of occupational self-efficacy on employee overall job performance was still moderate and significant $\beta = .37, p < .01$. Similar to Lau et al.'s (2014) study, I also found employee felt reliance at Time 1 had a positive effect on OBSE at Time 2, $\beta = .29, p < .01$, but the effect of employee felt disclosure did not, $\beta = -.06, n.s.$ The same procedure used for testing the indirect effect of OSE was followed to examine the indirect effect of OBSE, the indirect effect of employee felt reliance at Time 1 on employee overall job performance at Time 3 via OBSE at Time 2 was significant as expected, $ab = .08, [.06, .16]$. However, the indirect effect of felt disclosure was non-significant, $ab = -.06, [-.07, .03]$.

In M3, follower perceived delegation was added. Perceived delegation at Time 1 was uniquely, strongly and positively related with follower felt reliance at Time 1, $\beta = .77, p < .01$. Hence, hypothesis 10 were supported. In addition, after adding perceived delegation in the model, the relationship between employee justice perceptions and felt reliance became nonsignificant, $\beta = .03, n.s.$ Although not hypothesized, perceived delegation was also positively related to employee felt disclosure, $\beta = .30, p < .01$.

4.3.3.4 Response surface analysis

Hypotheses H15 to H24 all dealt with aspects of the effects of the extent and form of congruence/ incongruence between felt trust and trust in the leader on different outcome variables, i.e., employee occupational self-efficacy, OBSE and job performance variables. These hypotheses were tested using response surface analysis, conducted using coefficients resulting from polynomial regression models to calculate the slopes and curvatures of the response surface along the congruence and the incongruence lines for employee felt trust and trust in the leader. Each of the analyses was conducted twice – once for reliance-based trust variables, and again for disclosure-based trust variables.

Hypotheses H15 to H18 posited an influence of the fit between felt trust and trust in the leader on employee occupational self-efficacy and OBSE. These were tested following suggestions by Edwards (2002) to examine the slopes and curvatures of the surface along the congruence and incongruence lines (in the current study, these are the lines for the two independent variables of employee felt trust and trust in the leader). Following Edwards (2002), the variables were first scale centred, that is, centred at the midpoint of the response scale. The response pattern along the congruence line was used to test hypotheses H15 and H16, while that along the incongruence line was used to test hypotheses H17 and H18. The results are shown in Table 4.11. In the table, b_1 is the regression coefficient for the main effect of follower felt reliance (FR), b_2 is the coefficient for the main effect of reliance on the leader (ROL) and b_3 , b_5 are the coefficients for the quadratic terms of these two main effects (FR^2 and ROL^2); b_4 is the coefficient for the interactional term (FR X ROL). A similar model was used for the fit between felt disclosure and disclosure with the leader.

In addition to the calculated slopes and curvatures, response surface plotting provided another important way to interpret the results. Four surfaces representing the relationships between each of reliance fit and disclosure fit with occupational self-efficacy and organisation-based self-esteem are shown in Figures 4.4 (a)-(d). The dots on the X-Y dimension (the flat plane at the bottom of each figure) represent the data distribution for the X and Y variables, and indicate whether a particular part of the surface has data support. If the corresponding surface has no data support, this piece of surface should not be considered when interpreting the results. In addition, the iso-contours (curved lines) on the X-Y plane show different levels of the dependent variables Z. Furthermore, the line $y = x$ represents the congruence line and the line $y = -x$ refers to the incongruence line.

Table 4.11 Results of Polynomial Regression Analysis

	Occupational self- efficacy	OBSE
Reliance fit		
Constant: b_0	4.504**	3.414**
FR: b_1	.210**	.201**
ROL: b_2	-.083	.120**
FR ² : b_3	.061	.004
FR*ROL: b_4	-.015	-.001
ROL ² : b_5	.054*	-.003
R ²	.140**	.180**
Shape along the congruence line		
Slope: b_1+b_2	.127*	.321**
Curvature: $b_3+b_4+b_5$.100**	.000
Shape along the incongruence line		
Slope: b_1-b_2	.293**	.081
Curvature: $b_3-b_4+b_5$.130	.002
Disclosure fit		
Constant: b_0	4.680**	3.826**
FD: b_1	.051	.027
DTL: b_2	.128**	.133**
FD ² : b_3	.037	-.031
FD*DTL: b_4	-.024	.053
DTL ² : b_5	.089**	-.030
R ²	.030*	.100**
Shape along the congruence line		
Slope: b_1+b_2	.179**	.160**
Curvature: $b_3+b_4+b_5$.102**	-.058
Shape along the incongruence line		
Slope: b_1-b_2	-.077	-.106
Curvature: $b_3-b_4+b_5$.150*	-.164*

Note. FR = Felt reliance; ROL = Relying on the leader; FD = Felt disclosure; DTL = Disclosing to the leader

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Figure 4.4(a) Response Surface Plot for the Relationship Between Reliance Fit and Occupational Self-efficacy

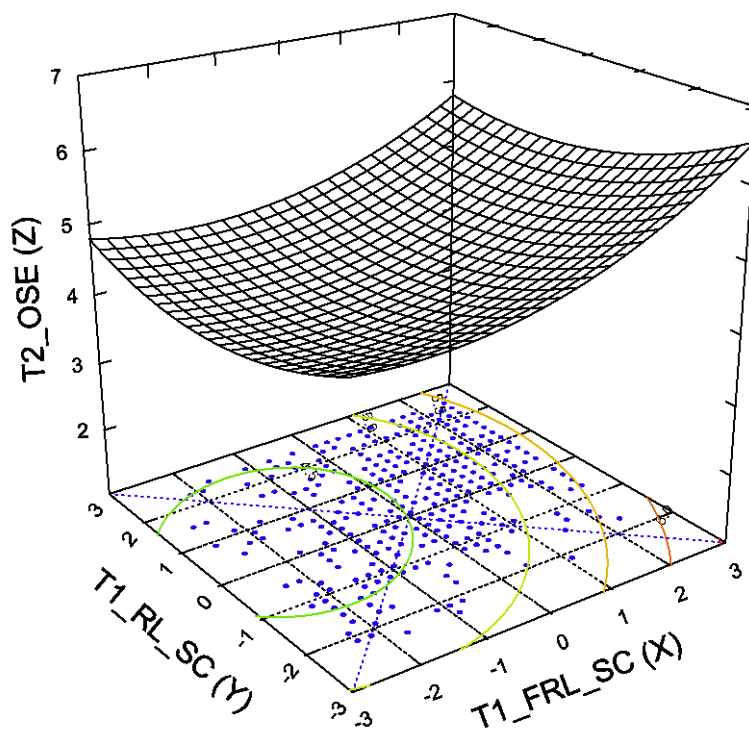


Figure 4.4(b) Response Surface Plot for the Relationship Between Reliance Fit and OBSE

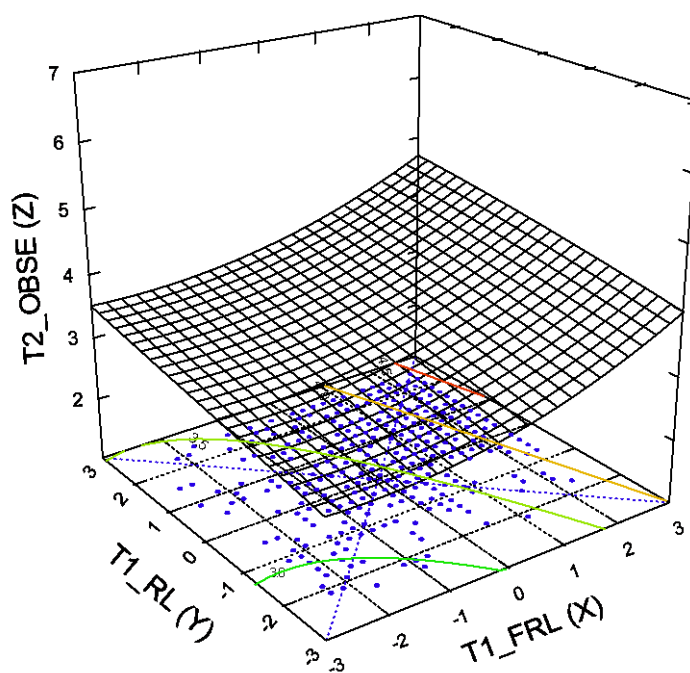


Figure 4.4(c) Response Surface Plot for the Relationship Between Disclosure Fit and Occupational Self-efficacy

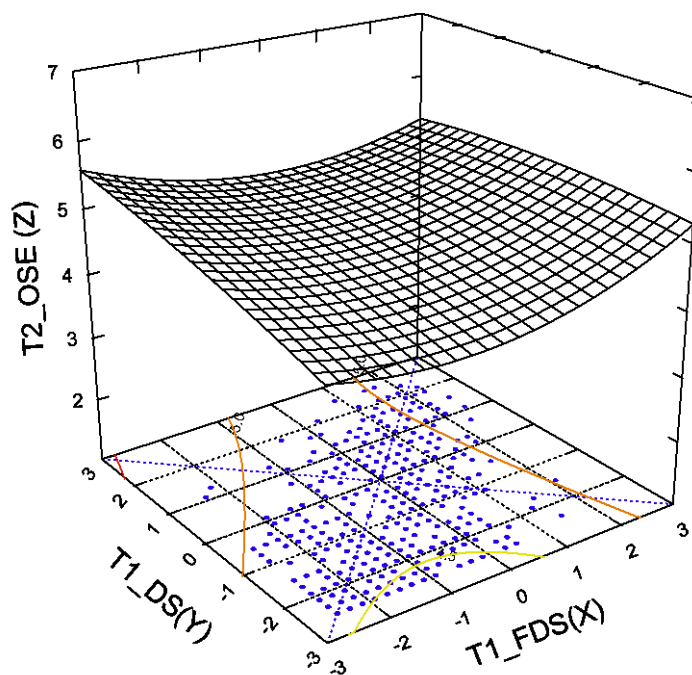
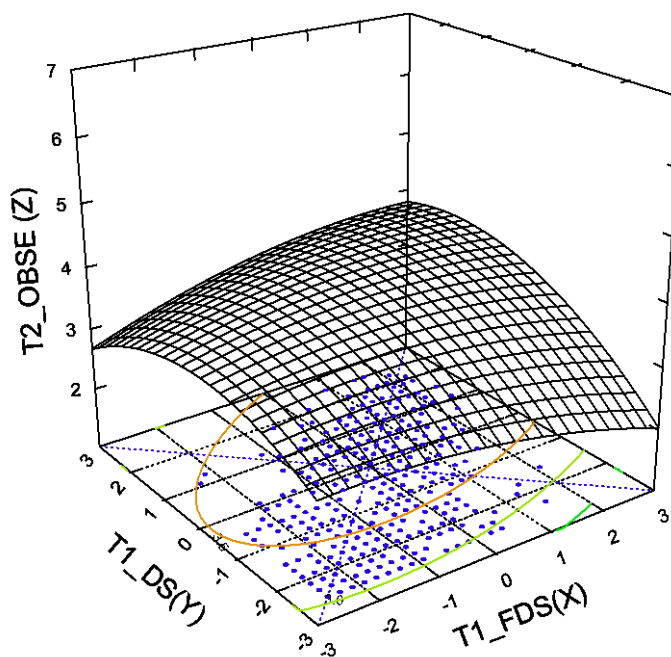


Figure 4.4 (d) Response Surface Plot for the Relationship Between Disclosure Fit and OBSE



As shown in Table 4.11, the polynomial regression model for reliance fit accounted for significant variance in occupational self-efficacy ($R^2 = .14, p < .01$) and OBSE ($R^2 = .18, p < .01$). There were similar findings for the polynomial regression model for disclosure fit, which significantly explained 3% and 10% of the variance in occupational self-efficacy and OBSE respectively. Thus, for all four of these models it was possible to proceed further to interpret the response surface coefficients.

For both the reliance and disclosure dimensions of trust I hypothesized that occupational self-efficacy and OBSE would be higher when felt trust and trust in the leader are both high than when they are both low. I also hypothesized that occupational self-efficacy and OBSE would be higher when felt trust is higher than trust in the leader, compared to when trust is higher than felt trust. As introduced in the analysis approach section, a positive slope and a non-significant curvature were expected, or a monotonically increasing curvature was expected both along the congruence line and the incongruence line.

For the reliance fit-occupational self-efficacy model, the slope of the surface along the congruence line at the point where felt reliance = 0 and reliance on the leader = 0 was positive and statistically significant, $b_1 + b_2 = .13, p < .05$. However, in addition the curvature along the congruence line also was positive and statistically significant, $b_3 + b_4 + b_5 = .10, p < .01$. Figure 4.4(a) further indicates that occupational self-efficacy increased at an increasing rate when felt reliance and reliance on the leader were both higher than the scale midpoint, but below the scale midpoint, the level of occupational self-efficacy increased slightly toward the low congruence direction. Hence, H15 (a) was conditionally supported when the congruence of the reliance fit was high, specifically when it was higher than its median level. Along the

incongruence line, the curvature was positive but not significantly different from zero, $b_3-b_4+b_5 = .13, p >.05$. In addition, the slope of the surface at the point where felt reliance = 0 and relying on the leader = 0 was positive and statistically significant, $b_1-b_2 = .29, p <.01$, indicating that occupational self-efficacy was higher when felt reliance was higher than reliance on the leader, rather than vice versa. Therefore, H17(a) was supported.

For the reliance fit-OBSE model, H15 (b) was supported with a significant and positive slope at the point where felt reliance = 0 and reliance on the leader = 0, $b_1+b_2 = .32, p <.01$, and with a non-curved surface indicated by $b_1+b_2+b_3 = 0, p >.05$. The sloping surface indicates that the level of OBSE was higher when felt reliance and relying on the leader were both high than when both were low. Along the incongruence line, both the slope and the curvature were not significantly different from zero. That is, the level of OBSE was consistent when felt reliance and reliance on the leader were equally incongruent in either direction. Subsequently, H17 (b) was not supported.

For the disclosure fit and occupational self-efficacy model, along the congruence line both the curvature and the slope were positive and significantly different from zero, $b_1+b_2 = .18, p <.01$; $b_3+b_4+b_5 = .13, p <.01$, displaying a monotonically increasing surface as shown in figure 4.4(c). Hence, H16 (a) was supported. H18 (a) predicted a higher level of occupational self-efficacy when felt disclosure is higher than disclosure with the leader. This hypothesis was not supported as the slope at the point where felt disclosure = 0 and disclosure with the leader = 0 was not significantly different from zero, $b_1-b_2 = -.08, p >.05$ along the incongruence line and the upward curvature indicated a saddle surface, $b_3-b_4+b_5 = .15, p <.05$.

For the disclosure fit-OBSE model, along the congruence line the slope at the point where both felt disclosure and disclosure with the leader equals zero was positive and significantly different from zero, $b_1+b_2 = .16$, $p<.01$ and the curvature was not different from zero, $b_3+b_4+b_5 = -.06$, $p>.05$. Together, they jointly indicate a sloping but non-curved surface, which suggests that the level of OBSE was higher when felt disclosure and disclosure with the leader were both high than when they were both low. Hence, 16(b) was supported. Along the incongruence line, the slope was not significantly different from zero, while the curvature was negative and significant ($b_3-b_4+b_5 = -.16$, $p<.05$). Hence, the level of OBSE decreased when felt disclosure and disclosure with the leader were incongruent. Therefore, H18(b) was not supported.

Mediated response surface analysis was used to test hypotheses H19 to H24, which assumed mediation effects of self-assessment on the relationship between trust fit and the outcome variables. The results are reported in Tables 4.12(a) and 4.12(b). As introduced in the analytical strategy part, a latent formative variable was specified to cumulate the effects of all of five terms in quadratic equation into a single variable. In-role job performance and extra-role job performance were examined at the same time in each of the four models of trust fit-self-assessment, for example, reliance fit-occupational self-efficacy model, etc. Path A represents the direct effects of trust fit on the mediators, i.e., occupational self-efficacy and OBSE. Path B refers to the unique effects of each of the two mediators on the three outcome variables, i.e., in-role job performance, OCBI and OCBO, after controlling for the effects of trust fit. The direct and indirect effects of trust fit on each outcome variable are represented by path C' and path AB respectively. The total effect is $AB+C'$.

For the reliance fit dimension, both occupational self-efficacy and organisation-based self-esteem fully mediated the relationship between reliance fit and the outcome variables. This conclusion was supported by a significant indirect effect (AB) and a non-significant direct effect (C') of reliance fit on the outcome variables after partialling out the influence of the mediator. The indirect effects varied from $ab = .148$, $p < .01$, for the effect from reliance fit to in-role job performance via occupational-self-efficacy, to $ab = .186$, $p < .01$, for the effect from reliance fit to in-role job performance via organisation-based self-efficacy. Hence hypotheses H20 (a) (b), H21 (a) (b) and H22 (a) (b) were supported. For the disclosure fit dimension, only organisation-based self-esteem mediated the effects of disclosure fit on the three outcome variables, with significant indirect effects on in-role job performance ($ab = .081$, $p < .05$), OCBI ($ab = .092$, $p < .01$) and OCBO ($ab = .095$, $p < .05$). Hence, hypotheses H23 (b), H24 (b) and H25 (b) were supported.

However, the questions of the effect of trust fit on the outcome variables mediated by the two mediators is still unanswered. To further understand the mediated relationship between trust fit, self-assessment, and performance, mediated polynomial regressions were conducted for the reliance fit and disclosure dimensions. The direct, mediated, indirect and total effects of the five quadratic terms on in-role job performance, OCBI and OCBO through the two mediators were examined. The results are presented in Table 4.13 (a) for reliance fit and 4.13 (b) for disclosure fit. According to Edwards (2002) and Edwards and Parry (1993), the indirect effect represents the portion of the quadratic effect that occurs via the mediator. Thus, only the direct and indirect effects of the response surface analysis are presented in Figures 4.5 (a) and (b) to 4.16 (a) and (b). (The plots of the mediated and total effects

of trust congruence on the performance dimensions are provided in Appendix I, Figures 4.5 (c) and (d) to 4.16 (c) and (d)).

First, regarding the direct effects of reliance congruence and disclosure congruence on the three dimensions of performance, the results in Table 4.13 (a) indicate that the levels of in-role job performance, OCBI, and OCBO were higher when felt reliance (or felt disclosure) and reliance on (or disclosure with) the leader were both high than when they were both low. When felt trust and trust in the leader were incongruent, the results suggest that the levels of in-role job performance and OCBI were higher when felt reliance was higher than reliance on the leader. The levels of all three dimensions of performance were higher when felt disclosure was higher than disclosure with the leader.

In terms of the indirect effect of reliance fit on the three performance variables via occupational self-efficacy, along the congruence line the slope and the curvature were all significant and positive for all three performance variables. Although the curvature was generally upward along the congruence line, it can still be concluded that the levels of employee in-role job performance OCBI and OCBO were higher when felt reliance and reliance on the leader were both high than when they were both low. For in-role job performance, the iso-contour in Figure 4.5 (b) suggests that the level of in-role job performance was also higher when felt reliance and reliance on the leader were both extremely low. However, there are no data (dots on the ground) supporting the surface when the two reliance variables were both low. Similarly, for OCBO, the iso-contour in Figure 4.7 (b) suggests that the level of OCBO was higher when felt reliance and reliance on the leader were both high. For OCBI, the surface in Figure 4.6 (c) nearly starts from the median levels of the two

reliance fit variables. That is, the upward curvature is monotonically increasing toward the point where felt reliance and reliance are both high. Hence, the levels of in-role job performance and OCBI still increased when felt reliance and reliance on the leader both increased at the same time. Along the incongruence line, OCBI and OCBO both increased when felt reliance was higher than reliance. This result is supported by the positive and significant slope but non-significant curvature of OCBO and the surface plot in Figure 4.6 (c) for OCBI. However, a similar conclusion was difficult to come to for in-role job performance. The level of in-role job performance was higher when felt reliance or reliance on the leader were higher than when they were both at the median level, as is suggested by the positive and significant slope and curvature.

Table 4.12 (a) Results of Mediated Polynomial Regression Relating Reliance Fit, Occupational Self-efficacy/OBSE and Outcomes

	Reliance fit to JP via OSE	Reliance fit to OCBI via OSE	Reliance fit to OCBO via OSE	Reliance fit to JP via OBSE	Reliance fit to OCBI via OBSE	Reliance fit to OCBO via OBSE
A	.223**	.223**	.233**	.288**	.288**	.288**
B	.665**	.637**	.618**	.645**	.621**	.634**
C'	-.028	.014	.032	-.062	-.043	-.015
AB	.148** [.068, .229]	.142** [.063, .221]	.138** [.061, .215]	.186** [.111, .261]	.179** [.107, .251]	.183** [.111, .255]
AB+C'	.121* [.011, .231]	.156** [.017, .294]	.170 ** [.036, .304]	.123* [.025, .222]	.136** [.026, .228]	.167** [.043, .292]

Note: OSE = Occupational self-efficacy; OBSE = Organisation-based self-esteem; OCBI = Organisational citizenship behaviour toward individuals; OCBO = Organisational citizenship behaviour toward organisation. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$. Confidence intervals for indirect effects and total effects are reported in parentheses. Estimates are considered to be statistically significant if the range of values between the lower and upper limits of the confidence interval do not include zero. * 95% confidence intervals, **99% confidence intervals.

Table 4.12 (b) Results of Mediated Polynomial Regression Relating Disclosure Fit, Occupational Self-efficacy/OBSE and Outcomes

	Disclosure fit to JP via OSE	Disclosure fit to OCBI via OSE	Disclosure fit to OCBO via OSE	Disclosure fit to JP via OBSE	Disclosure fit to OCBI via OBSE	Disclosure fit to OCBO via OBSE
A	.016	.108	.075	.127*	.150**	.152*
B	.657**	.636**	.618**	.638**	.616**	.625**
C'	.104*	.031	.101	-.092	-.047	.027
AB	.011 (-.070, .091)	.128 (-.002, .162)	.046 (-.028, .120)	.081* (.001, .161)	.092** (.001, .184)	.095* (.017, .174)
AB+C'	.115** (.015, .214)	.244 (-.073, .272)	.147** (.022, .272)	-.011 (-.222, .201)	.046 (-.146, .237)	.122 (-.081, .325)

Note: OSE = Occupational self-efficacy; OBSE = Organisation-based self-esteem; OCBI = Organisational citizenship behaviour toward individuals; OCBO = Organisational citizenship behaviour toward organisation. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$. Confidence intervals for indirect effects and total effects are reported in parentheses. Estimates are considered to be statistically significant if the range of values between the lower and upper limits of the confidence interval do not include zero. * 95% confidence intervals, **99% confidence intervals.

Table 4.13(a) Results of Mediated Polynomial Regression Relating Trust Fit, Occupational Self-efficacy and Outcomes

	Direct	Mediated	Indirect	Total	Direct	Mediate	Indirec	Total	Direct	Mediate	Indirec	Total
	In-role job performance				OCBI				OCBO			
Reliance fit												
Constant:b0	5.164*	4.210**	.955**	5.169**	4.596*	3.346**	1.257*	4.603*	3.819*	1.678**	2.153*	3.830*
FR:b1	.094*	.042	.045**	.087*	.321**	.252**	.059**	.311**	.260**	.143	.100**	.243**
ROL:b2	.016	.032	-.018*	.014	-	-.151**	-.023*	-	.052	.089	-.040*	.049
FR2:b3	.053**	.04	.013	.053**	.033	.016	.017*	.033	-.003	-.031	.029*	-.002
FR*ROL:b4	-.018	-.014*	.000	-.017	.040	.046	-.004	.042	.010	.021	-.001	.014
ROL2:b5	.030	.018	.011*	.029	.043	.026	.015*	.041	-.005	-.033	.026*	-.007
Occ self-eff	--	.212**	--	--	--	.279**	--	--	--	.478**	--	--
Shape along the congruence line												
Slope: b1+b2	.110**	.070*	.030**	.100*	.148*	.101	.035*	.136	.312**	.232*	.061*	.293**
Curvature: b3+b4+b5	.065**	.040	.020**	.007**	.116*	.088	.028**	.126*	.002	-.043	.048**	.005
Shape along the incongruence												
Slope: b1-b2	.078	.010	.060**	.070	.494**	.403**	.081**	.485**	.208	.054	.140**	.194
Curvature: b3-b4+b5	.101*	.070	.030*	.100*	.036	-.004	.036*	.032	-.018	-.085	.062	-.022
Disclosure fit												
Constant:b0	5.375*	4.085**	1.288**	5.373**	4.842*	2.813**	2.027*	4.677*	4.13**	1.656**	2.470*	4.126*
FD:b1	.066*	.065**	.010	.074**	.208**	.207**	.014	.161**	.103	.102	.018	.120
DTL:b2	.006	-.037**	.023*	-.014**	.027	-.042	.036	-	.060	-.024	.044	.020
FD2:b3	.030	.015	.015*	.030	.078	.054	.024	.032	.063	.034	.030	.064
FD*DTL:b4	.005	-.001	-.007	-.008	-.043	-.053	-.011	.038	-.053	-.064	-.014	-.078
DTL2:b5	-.017	-.004	-.003	-.007	.049	.007	-.005	.023	-.054	-.029	-.006	-.035
Occ self-eff		.270**				.425**				.518**		
Shape along the congruence line												
Slope: b1+b2	.072*	.028	.032**	.060	.235**	.165*	.051**	.134	.163*	.078	.062**	.140
Curvature: b3+b4+b5	.018	.01	.005	.015	.084	.071	.008	.093	-.044	-.059	.010	-.049
Shape along the incongruence line												
Slope: b1-b2	.060	.102**	-.013	.088**	.181	.249**	-.021	.389	.043	.126	-.026	.010
Curvature: b3-b4+b5	.008	.012	.020	.031	.170	.177	.031	.016	.062	.069	.038	.107

Note. FR = Felt reliance; ROL = Relying on the leader; FD = Felt disclosure; DTL = Disclosing to the leader; OSE = Occupational self-efficacy; OBSE = Organisation-based self-esteem; OCBI = Organisational citizenship behaviour toward individuals; OCBO = Organisational citizenship behaviour toward organisation.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Table 4.13(b) Results of mediated polynomial regression relating trust fit, OBSE and outcomes

	Direct effect	Mediated	Indirect	Total	Direct	Mediated	Indirect	Total	Direct	Mediated	Indirect	Total
	In-role job performance				OCBI				OCBO			
Reliance fit												
Constant:b0	5.164**	4.667**	.458**	5.125**	4.596**	3.721**	.883**	4.604**	3.819**	1.345**	2.475**	3.820**
FR:b1	.094*	.146**	.029**	.094**	.321**	.270**	.052**	.322**	.260**	.118	.146**	.264**
ROL:b2	.016	.065	.018**	.014	-.173**	-.209**	.031**	-.178**	.052	-.048	.087**	.039
FR2:b3	.053**	-.004	.000	.055**	.033	.034	.000	.035	-.003	.001	.002	.004
FR*ROL:b4	-.018	.054**	.000	-.018	.040	.043	.000	.040	.010	.010	-.003	.009
ROL2:b5	.030	-.018	.000	.031	.043		.000	.042	-.005	.004	-.002	-.005
OBSE	--	.147**	--	--	--	.259**	--	--	--	.726**	--	--
Shape along the congruence line												
Slope: b1+b2	.110**	.061	.047*	.108**	.148*	.061	.083**	.144	.312**	.070	.233**	.303**
Curvature: b3+b4+b5	.065**	.067*	.000	.067**	.116*	.117*	.000	.117**	.002	.007	.000	.007
Shape along the incongruence line												
Slope: b1-b2	.078	.069	.012	.081	.494**	.179	.021	.500**	.208	.167	.059	.225
Curvature: b3-b4+b5	.101*	.103*	.000	.103*	.036	.037	.000	.037	-.018	-.012	.001	-.011
Disclosure fit												
Constant:b0	5.375**	4.559**	.729**	5.288**	4.842**	3.552**	1.153**	4.850**	4.13**	1.170**	2.646**	3.816**
FD:b1	.066*	.070*	.043**	.113**	.208**	.215**	.067**	.224**	.103	.118	.156**	.274**
DTL:b2	.006	-.036	.025**	-.010*	.027	.041**	.045**	.005	.060	-.093	.093**	.000
FD2:b3	.030	.037	.001	.038	.078	.089	.001	.079	.063	.089	.003	.092
FD*DTL:b4	.005	.008	.000	.008	-.043	-.064	.000	-.046	-.053	-.099	-.001	-.099
DTL2:b5	-.017	.002	-.001	.001	.049	.080	.000	.053	-.054	.017	-.002	.015
OBSE	--	.214**	--	--	--	.338**	--	--	--	.776**	--	--
Shape along the congruence line												
Slope: b1+b2	.072*	.034	.069**	.103**	.235**	.175*	.109*	.284*	.163*	.025	.249**	.274*
Curvature: b3+b4+b5	.018	.047*	.000	.047**	.084	.105*	.000	.105*	-.044	.007	.000	.007
Shape along the incongruence line												
Slope: b1-b2	.060	.106	-.017	.123*	.181	.225	.027	.282*	.043	.211	.063	.274
Curvature: b3-b4+b5	.008	.031	.000	.031	.170	.233	.000	.234	.062	.205	.001	.207

Note. FR = Felt reliance; ROL = Relying on the leader; FD = Felt disclosure; DTL = Disclosing to the leader; OSE = Occupational self-efficacy; OBSE = Organisation-based self-esteem; OCBI = Organisational citizenship behaviour toward individuals; OCBO = Organisational citizenship behaviour toward organisation. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Figure 4.5 Response Surface Analysis: The Direct and Indirect Effects of Reliance Fit on In-role Job Performance via Occupational Self-efficacy

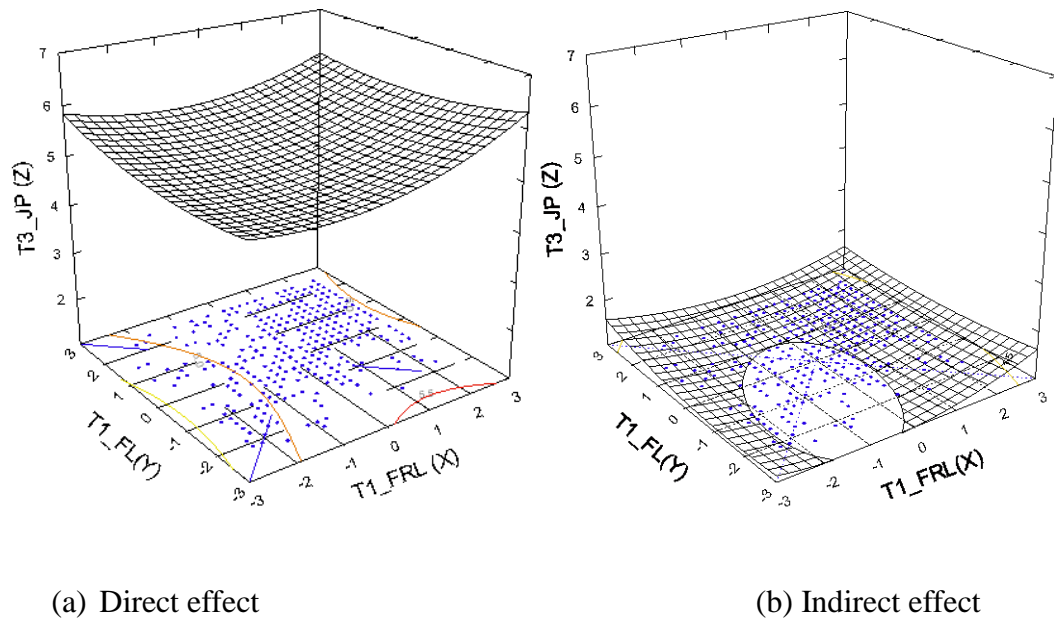


Figure 4.6 Response Surface Analysis: The Direct and Indirect Effects of Reliance Fit on OCBI via Occupational Self-Efficacy

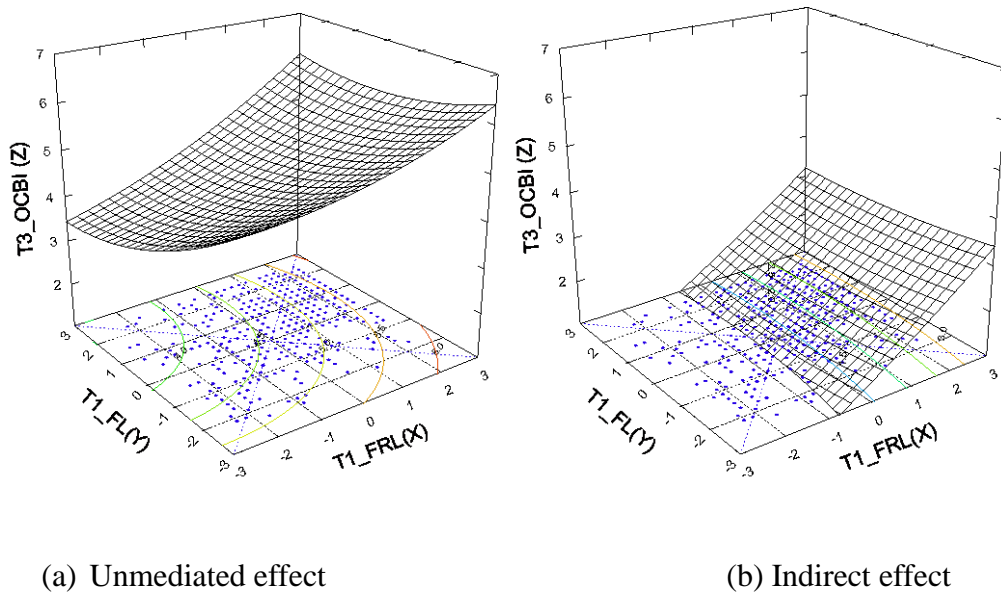


Figure 4.7 Response Surface Analysis: The Direct and Indirect Effects of Reliance Fit on OCBO via Occupational Self-Efficacy

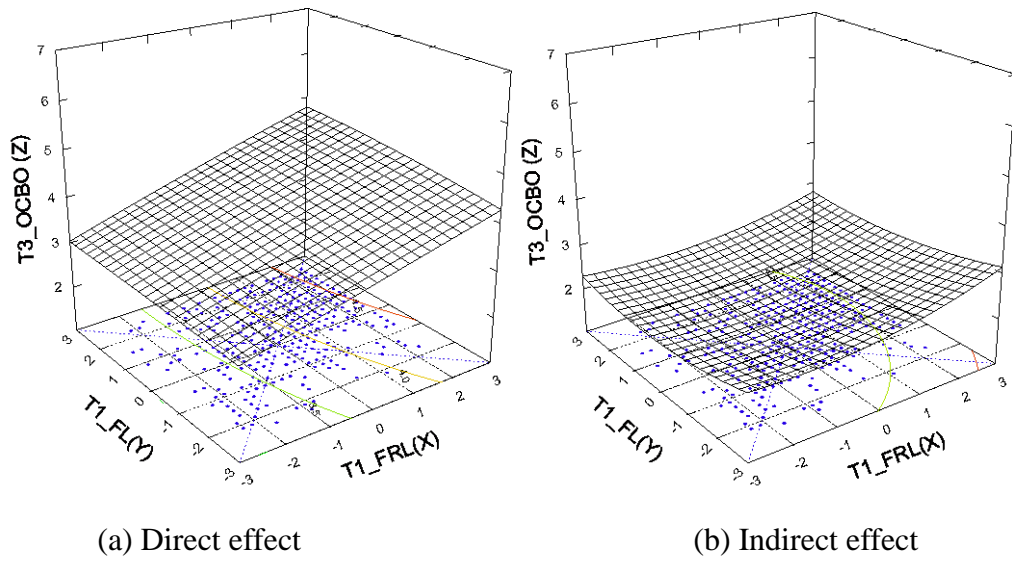


Figure 4.8 Response Surface Analysis: The Direct and Indirect Effects of Disclosure Fit on In-Role Job Performance via Occupational Self-Efficacy

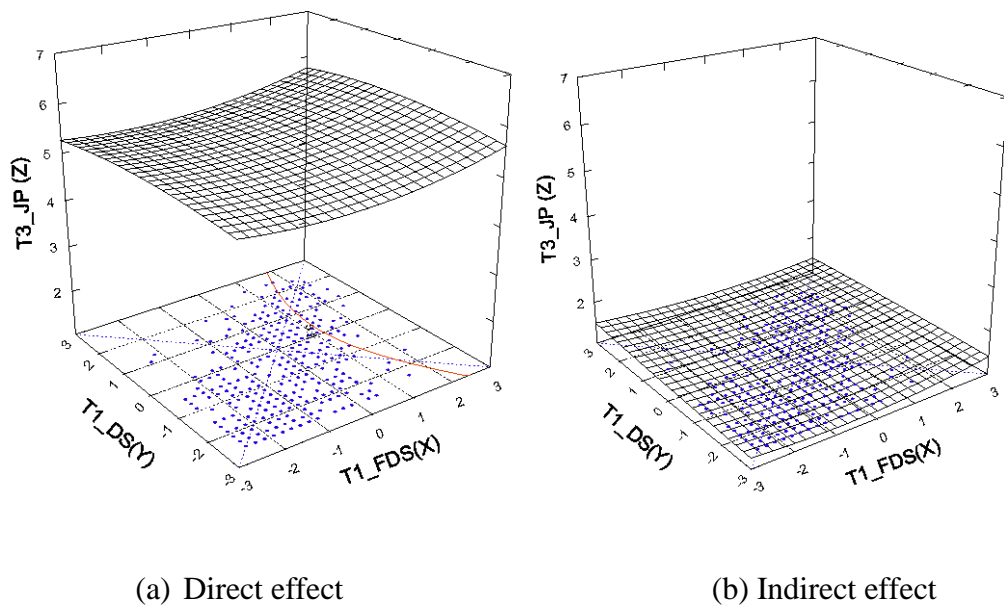


Figure 4.9 Response Surface Analysis: The Direct and Indirect Effects of Disclosure Fit on OCBI via Occupational Self-Efficacy

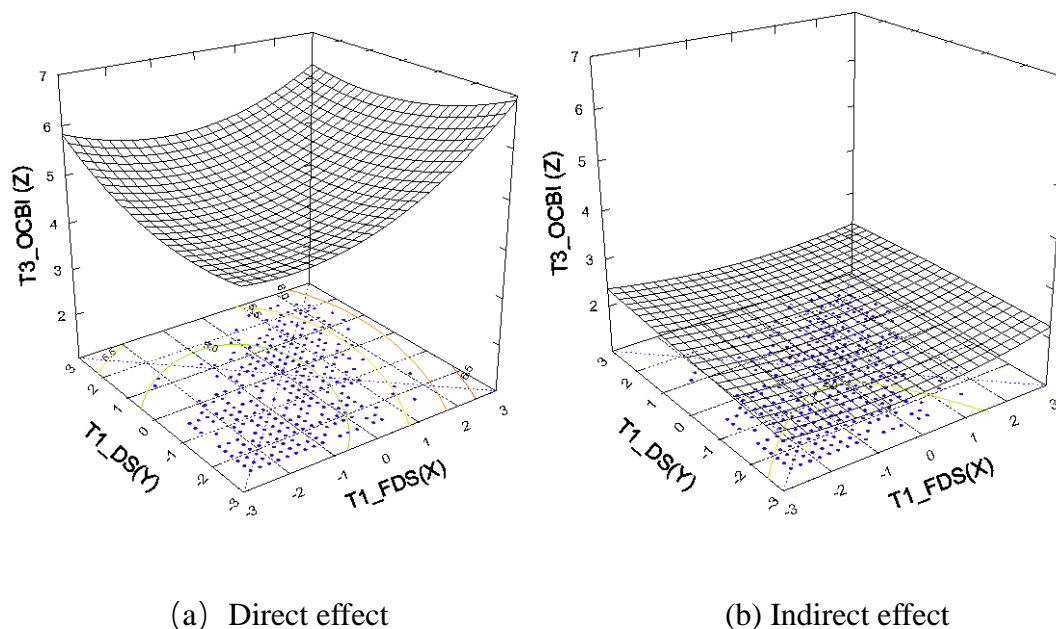


Figure 4.10 Response Surface Analysis: The Direct and Indirect Effects of Disclosure Fit on OCBO via Occupational Self-Efficacy

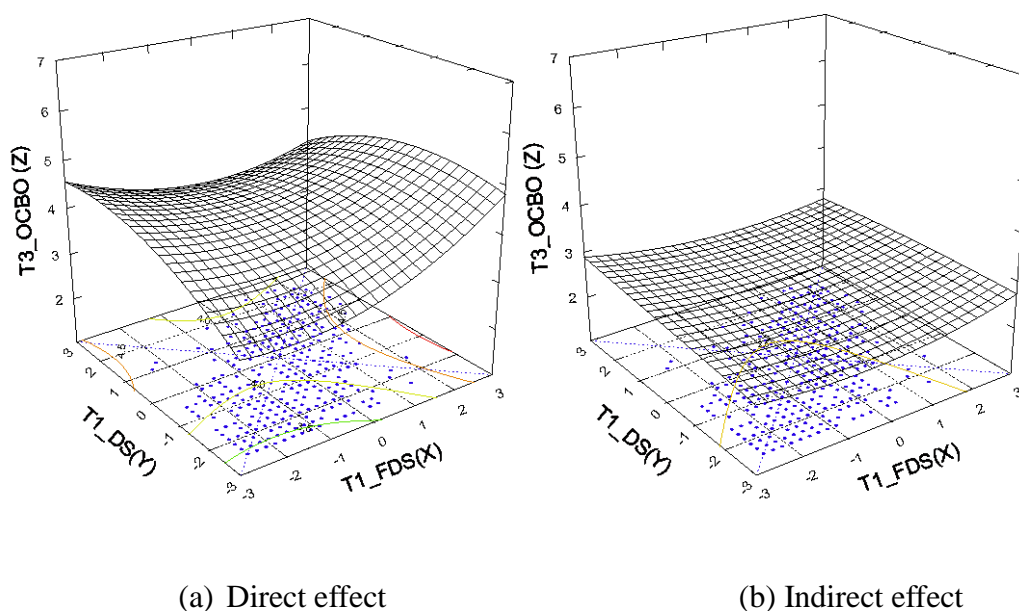


Figure 4.11 Response Surface Analysis: The Direct and Indirect Effects of Reliance Fit on In-role Job Performance via OBSE

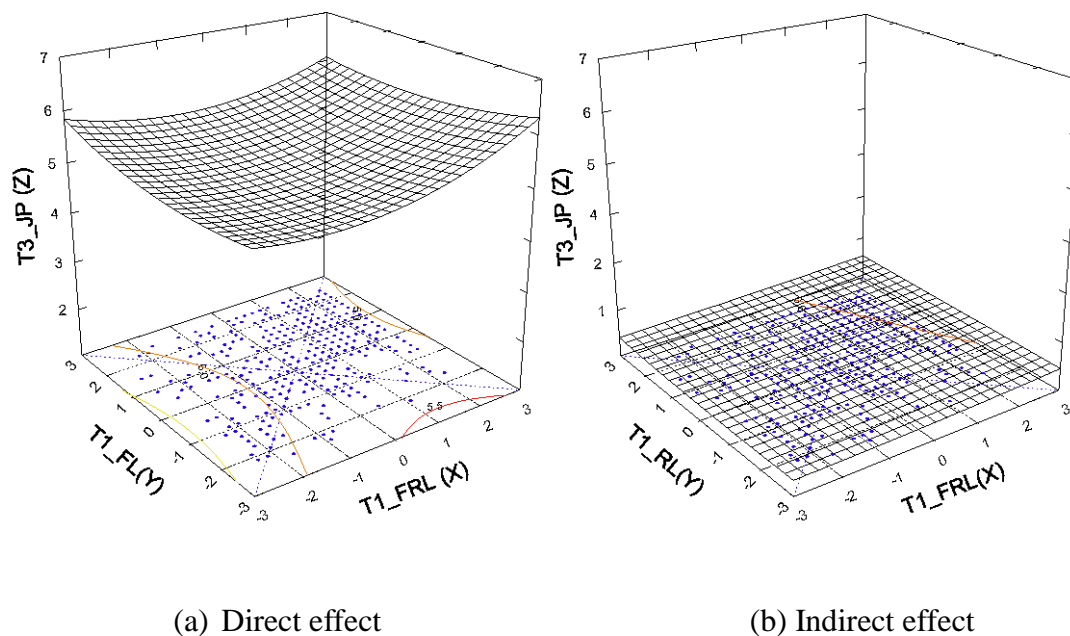


Figure 4.12 Response Surface Analysis: The Direct and Indirect Effects of Reliance Fit on OCBI via OBSE

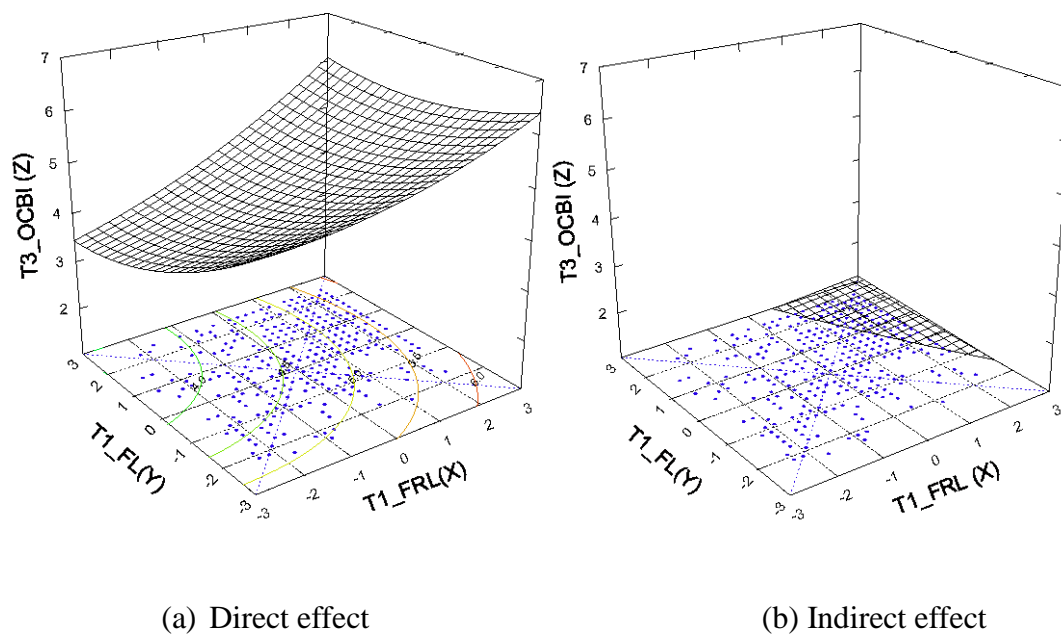


Figure 4.13 Response Surface Analysis: The Direct and Indirect Effects of Reliance Fit on OCBO via OBSE

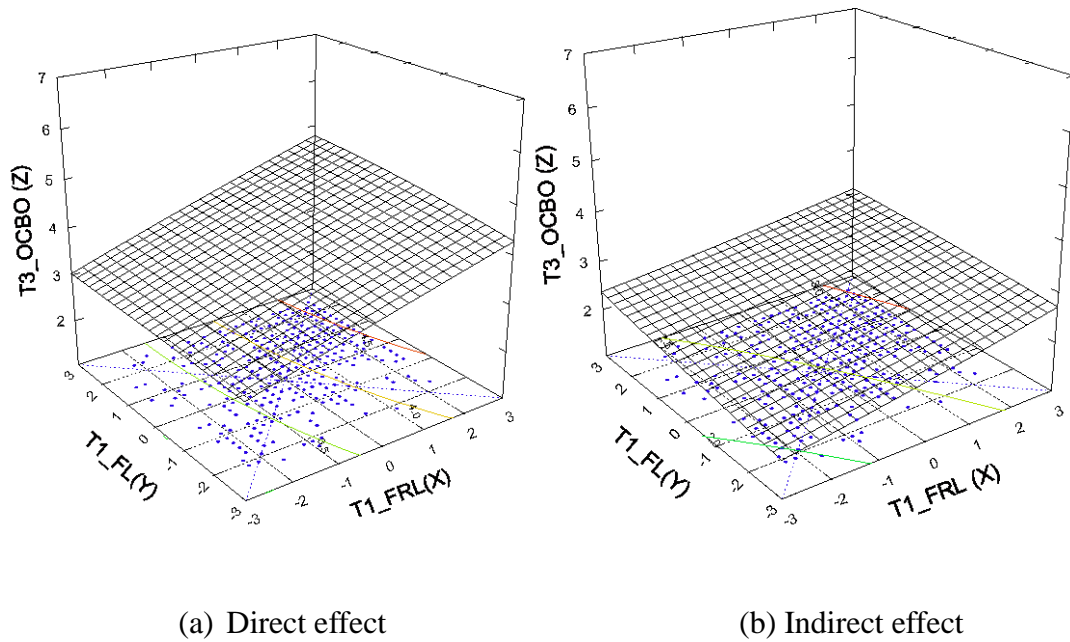


Figure 4.14 Response Surface Analysis: The Direct and Indirect Effects of Disclosure Fit on In-role Job Performance via OBSE

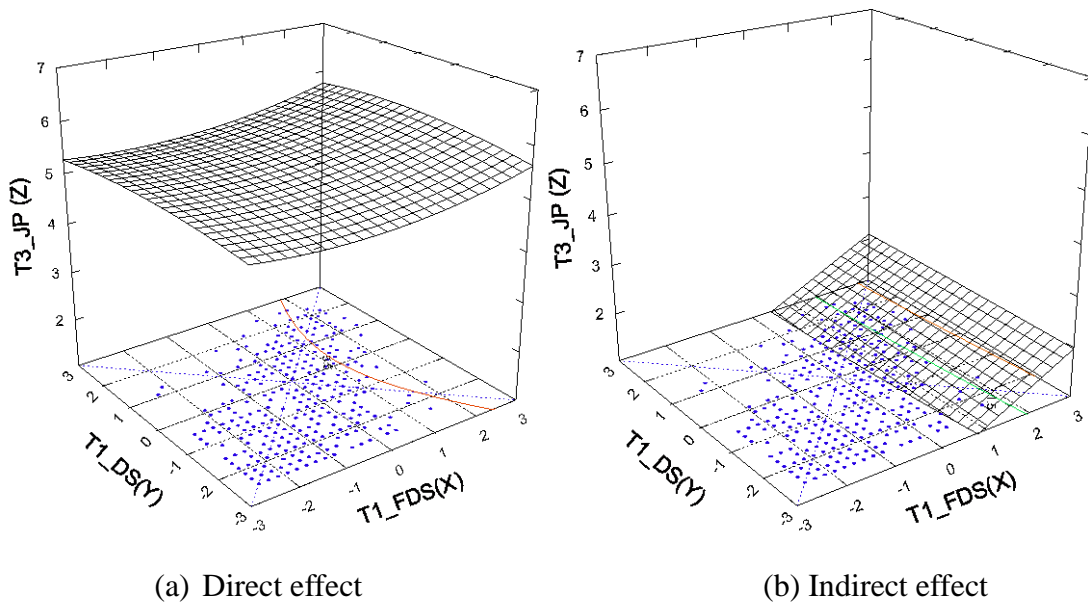


Figure 4.15 Response Surface Analysis: The Direct and Indirect Effects of Disclosure Fit on OCBI via OBSE

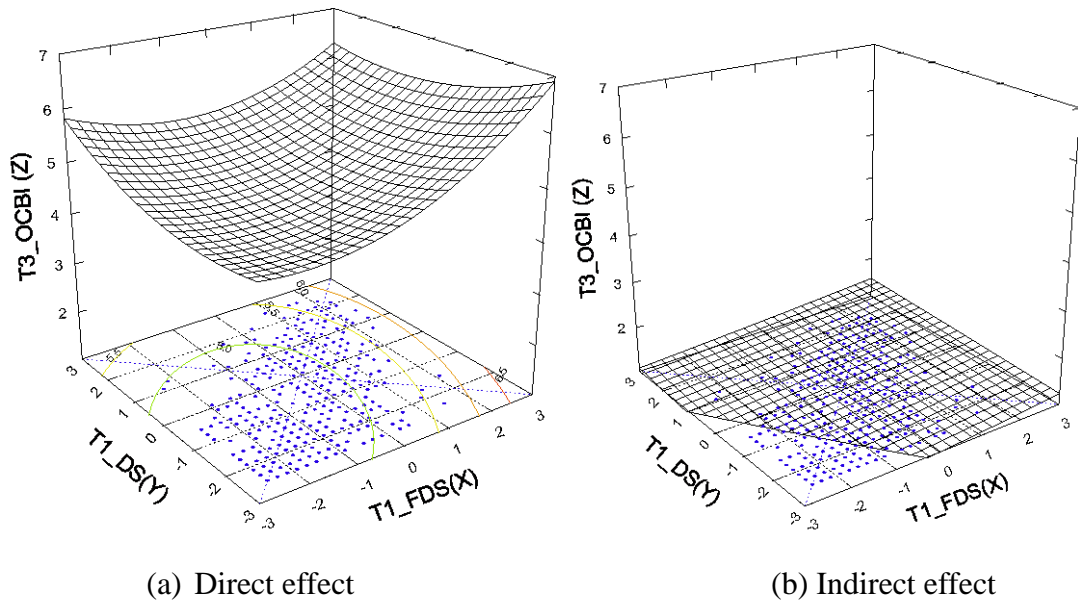
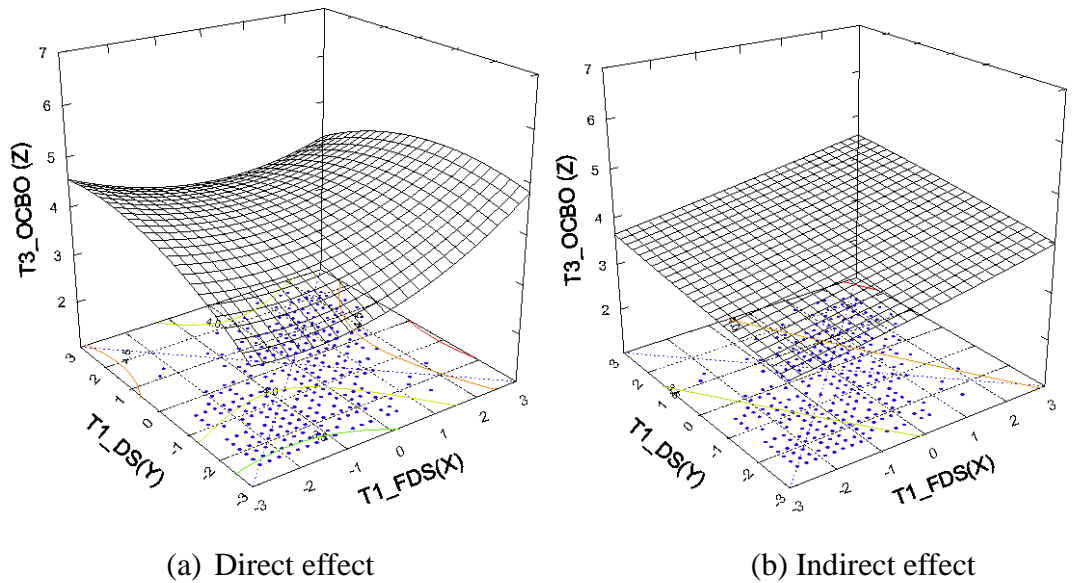


Figure 4.16 Response Surface Analysis: The Direct and Indirect Effects of Disclosure Fit on OCBO via OBSE



For the indirect effect of reliance fit on the performance variables via OBSE, the results along the congruence line for the three performance dimensions were similar. The positive and significant slope and non-significant curvature jointly indicate that the levels of in-role job performance, OCBI and OCBO were higher when felt reliance and reliance on the leader were both high than when they were both low. There was no effect of the incongruence between felt reliance and reliance on the leader on the performance variables.

With respect to the indirect effects of felt disclosure and disclosure with the leader on the employee performance variables via occupational self-efficacy, the levels of the three performance variables were all higher when the two disclosure variables were both high than when they were both low, as indicated by the positive and significant slope and non-significant curvature along the congruence line for the three outcome variables. Again, the effect of the incongruence of disclosure fit on employee performance was non-significant due to the non-significant slope and curvature along the incongruence line.

Similarly, regarding the indirect effect of the felt disclosure fit on employee job performance via OBSE, the level of the three performance variables increased when felt disclosure and disclosure with the leader increased simultaneously. The effects of incongruence on in-role job performance, OCBO and OCBI were non-significant.

4.4 Discussion of the chapter

This chapter is among the first studies that have attempted to examine the antecedents and outcomes of follower felt trust. Like Chapter 3, this chapter also contained two studies, a preliminary study and a follow-up study. A structural model was examined using both a cross-sectional research design and a more rigorous design: a multi-wave measurement research design in which the focal variables were measured at different time points. To examine causality, time-lagged research is more powerful than cross-sectional research for parameter estimation (Wang et al., 2017). Examining the hypothesized model in two empirical studies – one cross-sectional study and one multi-wave measurement study – has provided robust support for the hypotheses. Specifically, regarding antecedents, I found that employee perceived justice and perceived delegation resulted in employee felt trust. This new information responds to Lau et al.'s (2014) call for more research examining the conditions under which employees feel trusted. More importantly, the findings contribute to the justice literature by demonstrating that followers' fairness judgements indeed have strong effects on their perceptions of being trusted, in addition to their influence on trust in the leadership (Colquitt et al. 2012). Therefore, this chapter has also answered the research call by Lind (2001) for more research to explain why justice judgements are highly related to inclusion and belonging. Felt trust by the supervisor might be one of the mechanisms explaining the relationship. Indeed, fairness is more directly lined to with felt trust as these two constructs are both perceptions of the supervisor. In turn, they enhance subordinate feelings of inclusion and belonging.

In addition to justice, perceived delegation was found predicting the two dimensions of follower felt trust. That is, when followers feel that they are empowered, they are

more likely to suppose that their leaders would have the willingness to rely on them and share information with them. A positive relationship between trust and empowerment has previously been found (Yukl & Fu, 1999). In this chapter, it has been found that followers are more likely to feel reliance when they feel empowered and non-monitored and this effect is much stronger ($\beta = .77, p < .01$) than feeling treated fairly, when these two variables were examined at the same time. This may be due to the reason that perceived delegation compared to justice is theoretically more closed to felt reliance. Hence, this chapter contributes to the felt trust literature by examining various predictors and comparing their predictive powers to different dimensions of felt trust.

The finding of differential effects of felt reliance versus felt disclosure is consistent with the findings of Gillespie (2003) and Lau et al. (2014). I have found evidence supporting the idea that employees' felt trust relates to their self-reported job performance. This evidence was strongest and most consistent for the felt trust dimension of reliance, which showed a robust positive effect on performance. In contrast, felt disclosure actually showed a negative effect on performance when felt reliance was also included in the model. This suggests that once the effects of felt reliance are controlled for, that is, partial out of the felt disclosure relationship (the two felt trust variables were moderately positively related), the remaining effect of felt disclosure was associated with lower occupational self-efficacy. The different findings for these two dimensions are in line with previous studies. Gillespie (2003) also found reliance was more strongly associated with job satisfaction and performance in leader-member relations than disclosure was. Similarly, Lau et al. (2014) found no direct effect of felt disclosure on job outcomes. From the present

results combined with those of previous research, it can be concluded that the two dimensions of felt trust are truly different in terms of their influences on the follower.

Looking more closely at the findings, employee felt disclosure was negatively related to occupational self-efficacy in both studies. Although felt disclosure was positively correlated with employee occupational self-efficacy in bivariate analyses, when examining the simultaneous effects of the two dimensions of employee felt trust on occupational self-efficacy the effect of felt disclosure was in the opposite direction. Indeed, Lau et al. (2014) suggest that not all trusting behaviours have effects on employee self-evaluation, and the results in the current research support this notion given the lack of significant and positive results relating to felt disclosure. Furthermore, Bear et al. (2015) demonstrate a potential dark side of felt trust, with findings that felt trust can be related to emotional exhaustion because of a higher work load as a result of being trusted. Hence, it is reasonable to argue that a high level of felt disclosure could result in a higher level of negative effects on an employee, if the disclosure includes disclosing negative opinions of the job, or work-related and/or personal difficulties. Such destructive information sharing could negatively affect employee occupational self-efficacy, with consequent potentially demotivating effects on employee performance.

Note that this chapter has also tested for indirect effects of employee felt trust on job outcomes via employee occupational self-efficacy, even after controlling for the effect of OBSE. Consistently with my hypothesis, the positive influence of employee felt reliance on job performance appears to be mediated by high self-confidence in one's working capabilities. That is, employees are more likely to have high self-efficacy if they believe that their supervisor intends to trust their work-related skills

or judgment, and self-efficacy has been shown to positively relate to employee job performance. However, contrary to expectations, significant results for a mediated relationship of employee felt disclosure with job performance via occupational self-efficacy have not been found.

These findings extend the trust literature and our understanding of felt trust. More specifically, although Lau et al. (2014) also examine the influence of felt trust on employees' task performance and OCBs, they suggest that the mediating mechanism through which felt trust affects job behaviours is employees' organization-based self-esteem. In their results, OBSE weakly and only partially mediate the relationship between felt reliance and in-role job performance, with an estimated indirect effect of $ab = .03$, $p < .05$, while the mediation effects are non-significant for OCBI and OCBO. In the present follow-up study, I also found employee OBSE mediated the relationship between felt reliance and employee overall performance ($ab = .07$, $p < .05$). However, the magnitude of the indirect effect of follower felt reliance on overall performance via occupational self-efficacy was much stronger than OBSE when the latter was also included in the model ($ab = .14$, $p < .01$). Although the unique effects of employee OBSE and occupational self-efficacy on employee overall performance were similar, felt reliance was more strongly related with occupational self-efficacy than OBSE. Thus, I believe that from a theoretical perspective the construct of self-efficacy may be a more relevant mediator than organization-based self-esteem, as the construct of self-efficacy has more direct theoretical ties to work motivation. High self-efficacy can also increase persistence in terms of tasks (Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Tims et al., 2014). Therefore, self-efficacy is more relevant to performance than self-esteem.

The present research has not measured employee trust in the supervisor or supervisor trust in the employee, and so I could not directly compare the effects of these two forms of trust to the predictive effects of employee felt trust. However, I suspect that felt trust is more directly linked to performance. Indeed, in their meta-analysis, Dirks and Ferrin (2002) found a relatively weak influence of trust in the leader on employees' in-role and extra-role performance. This can be compared to the stronger relationship that I have found between employees' felt reliance and their self-rated performance. Thus, compared with Dirk and Ferrin's (2002) findings, the relatively stronger relationship between felt reliance and employee overall performance supports my argument that felt trust (or at least, felt reliance) might be more directly linked to performance than trust in the leader is.

Another important insight emerging from this chapter is its contribution expanding the existing trust literature by introducing P-E fit as a bilateral approach to address mutual trust and asymmetric trust simultaneously. Indeed, it offers a more in-depth understanding of the roles of the congruence and incongruence between trust and being trusted. To the best of my knowledge, this chapter is among the first to apply a P-E fit method to the trust research area. Trust fit, that is, the fit between follower felt trust and trust in the leader, has been introduced as an antecedent of follower self-evaluations, including occupational self-efficacy and OBSE. Specifically, this chapter has provided an insight into how felt trust matches trusting in the leader and how this match is related to follower self-evaluation and job performance. It has been found that for the two dimensions of trust fit, i.e. reliance fit and disclosure fit, occupational self-efficacy and OBSE are generally higher when follower felt trust and trust in the leader are both high than when both are low. Moreover, the relationship between trust fit and follower job performance is mediated by follower

self-evaluation. The relevance of trust fit in this chapter is in accordance with mutual trust studies that find that high mutual trust is related with high job satisfaction (Lagace, 1991), high job performance (Brower et al., 2009), coordination in joint ventures (Fang, Palmatier, Scheer, & Li, 2008) and improvement in efficiency and productivity (Mishra & Mishra, 1994).

This chapter has also contributed to the trust literature that focuses more on the asymmetric nature of dynamic trust and how asymmetric trust is related to follower job performance. For the reliance dimension, the results indicated that follower occupational self-efficacy increased when follower felt reliance increased above the level of reliance on the leader. However, there was no effect of reliance incongruence on follower OBSE. For the disclosure dimension, the findings imply that follower occupational self-efficacy and OBSE are higher when disclosure with the leader is higher than felt disclosure. Overall, different dimensions of trust fit have different effects on follower self-evaluations. When a leader intends to improve a follower's in-role job performance, he or she needs to increase the follower's confidence in his or her work-related capabilities and make the follower feel valued and a worthy member by trusting the follower's work-related judgements and establishing a relationship that encourages the follower to confide and share negative working opinions or difficulties with the leader.

4.5 Limitations and future research suggestions

Because all the variables in the two studies were self-reported from the same sources, although the findings were similar regarding the direct and indirect effects of employee felt reliance on job performance in my study to Lau et al.'s (2014), where employee job performance was rated by the supervisor, future research should

replicate and extend the current research using a multi-source multi-time research design. In addition, considering the convenience samples used in this chapter, future research is suggested to collect data from real organisations. Furthermore, as trust is a dynamic process, a diary research design is also suggested by Searle (2011), who indicates that a diary research method is ideal for modelling the dynamic process of trust by collecting detailed information about the events or experiences happening between a follower and a leader. Hence, a multi-source multi-time method is suggested for future studies to attempt to examine the casual relationships between the antecedents and outcomes of felt trust.

With respect to the antecedents of felt trust, future research might consider the influence of follower identity. For instance, Lord, Brown and Freiberg (1999) demonstrate that follower's self-identities are critical to their behaviours or reactions to leaders. Three levels of self-identity are identified by Lord et al. (1999): individual self-identity, interpersonal self-identity and collective self-identity, which influence how followers respond to the leader and the relationship with the leader (Lord, Gatti, & Chui, 2016). Therefore, future felt trust researchers might benefit from exploring the effects of felt trust on different levels of follower self-identities and the critical role of the latter in understanding the influence of felt trust on follower working behaviours, emotions and performance.

The results here contribute to an expanded understanding of the processes linking felt trust and employee job behaviours. So far, OBSE (Lau et al., 2014) and occupational self-efficacy have both been found to mediate the relationship between employees' felt trust and their job performances, and their unique effects were supported when both were included in the model at the same time. Hence, trust,

whether it be trust in the leader or feeling trusted by him/her, appears to enhance at least some aspects of employees' core self-evaluations regarding work, and consequently their job performance and OCB. Further research needs to pay more attention to the connection between felt trust and employees' core self-evaluations, especially to the self-esteem and self-efficacy components, as the other two core self-evaluation components of neuroticism and locus of control may be more trait-like and stable, which are less susceptible to external influences.

Felt trust in the present study specifically refers to employees' perceptions of their supervisors' willingness to be vulnerable. Another essential aspect of trust is trust-related risk-taking behaviours, for example cognition-based trust or affect-based trust (e.g. in the research by Colquitt et al., 2012). Given that trust as a belief and trust as a behaviour are two distinct aspects of trust (Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006; Mayer et al., 1995), follow-on research might provide further insight into felt trust by examining employees' perceptions of whether, when and how their supervisors actually engage in risk-taking behaviours based upon trust.

This chapter has provided preliminary findings on the effects of mutual and asymmetric trust by using the effects of congruence and incongruence between follower felt trust and trust in the leader on follower self-evaluation and job performance. Future research should aim to replicate the current study and provide in-depth understanding of this mechanism. For example, there is a need for an investigation of leader trust in followership in addition to follower felt trust, and of the congruence and incongruence between trust in the follower and trust in the leader to examine the interaction between downward trust and upward trust from the two perspectives.

4.6 Conclusion and implications

The findings of the studies in this chapter highlight the importance of employee felt trust in the workplace. They show how important it may be for leaders to make their followers feel that they are trusted if they expect reciprocity in the form of job performance and organizational citizenship behaviour. This means that leaders can foster their followers' felt trust by enhancing their fairness judgments and showing respect, dignity and truthfulness to their followers and providing work-related explanations, fair resource distributions and fair working procedures. In addition, delegation and empowerment foster follower felt reliance. These findings are consistent with Lau et al.'s (2014) suggestion that leaders should take more visible actions to make their followers feel trusted. Followers' felt trust can, in turn, enhance their self-worth and self-evaluated working capabilities and their resulting performance. However, although the self-disclosure component of felt trust is based on strong emotional and relational bonds between followers and leaders (Gillespie, 2003), in the present research felt disclosure had a negative influence on self-evaluated working capabilities, meaning that leaders should be careful about sharing sensitive information with followers. Instead, they should focus more on the other dimension of felt trust – felt reliance – as followers seemed more inclined to reciprocate this. Furthermore, in the process of building a strong mutual trust relationship, follower felt trust is more important than follower trust in the leader from the subordinate's perspective, and it can, in turn, enhance follower self-evaluation.

5 CHAPTER 5 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1 A summary of the antecedents of downward trust

The purpose of this thesis has been to provide a richer understanding of downward trust in organisations, i.e., the trust extended from a leader to a follower. Downward trust has been investigated from two perspectives – that of the leaders’ and of the followers’ – to paint a complete picture. In addition, two different dimensions of trust have been examined: reliance and disclosure. The research interest of this thesis was in exploring different antecedents proposed to predict downward trust and its relationship with followers’ job performance. In this chapter, I will summarize and integrate the findings on the antecedents and outcomes of downward trust.

5.1.1 Investigation of the empirical set of predictors of leader trust in the follower

As described in previous chapters, Mayer et al.’s (1995) model of trustworthiness is the most prominent one for modelling antecedents of trust. It proposes that three general aspects of a potential trustee, i.e., their ability, benevolence, and integrity, are the primary determinants of the extent of trust that is extended. However, there are additive proposed antecedents of trust that are specific aspects of a follower that are also proposed as antecedents of trust, including availability and receptivity (Werbel & Lopes Henriques, 2009). There is not much prior research that has looked at combining measures of these attributes to determine which contribute uniquely to the prediction of trust and of those, which are most influential. The studies presented in Chapter 3 directly address this research gap by examining and comparing these two sets of trust antecedents. The general antecedents were found to be stronger predictors than the specific ones, as the magnitudes of coefficients for availability and receptivity became very small and non-significant when examined with ABI in

the regression model of leader's trust in the follower. Additionally, leaders consider different aspects of follower trustworthiness in different situations. Specifically, they consider a follower's ability ($\beta = .52, p < .01$) when making decisions about whether to rely on him or her, consider his or her benevolence ($\beta = .79, p < .01$) when deciding whether to share sensitive information, and consider his or her integrity ($\beta = .48, p < .01$) when making expectations.

Additionally, *leader* trust propensity and disclosure distress were proposed as influential factors affecting a leader's trust in the follower. However, compared with follower trustworthiness, the small magnitude of the leader trust propensity effect indicates that follower trustworthiness is the predominate predictor. Moreover, supervisor distress disclosure (DDI) was found to have both a positive direct effect on supervisor disclosure intention and a positive moderating effect on the latter's relationship with perceived follower benevolence. The direct effect was small compared to the influence of perceived follower benevolence. Again, the results indicated that the aspects of follower trustworthiness are stronger predictors compared to those of leader characteristics.

5.1.2 Investigation of patterns of follower characteristics for the prediction of leader trust in followers

The previous results were from using a variable-oriented approach to understand the relationship between follower characteristics and the leader's trust in the follower, which summed the results for single variables investigated in isolation from other simultaneously examined variables. However, in reality the leader treats the follower as an integrated *totality* rather than a summation of variables (Foti & Hauentein, 2007). However, this approach has been seldom adopted to study trust antecedents in

previous trust literature. Hence, a person-oriented approach was also adopted to see whether more information could be gleaned from the data in an exploratory fashion. This approach used the person as the basic unit of observation (Foti & Hauenstein 2007) rather than the different trustworthiness variables. Followers were classified into different groups on the basis of their patterns of scores across the trustworthiness variables, based on the application of an empirical latent profile analysis. When considering all five trustworthiness variables, six patterns were found, when only considering ABI, five categories of followers were identified, which were trustworthy, trustable, capable, well-meaning and untrustworthy followers. Furthermore, the patterns predicted leader trust in followers.

5.1.3 Predictors of follow felt trust from the leader

Felt trust is an emerging research area which is worth investigations to enrich our knowledge of this research topic. For example, Lau et al., (2014) call for more research on proposing and examining antecedents of felt trust. To fill this research gap, with respect to the antecedents of downward trust from a follower perspective, perceived justice and delegation are hypothesized as predictors of follower felt trust, building on the argument that they have been found positively related to the quality of the relationship between the leader and the follower. The findings from Chapter 4 also contribute to justice theory by demonstrating another outcome of justice – felt trust.

Perceived justice and delegation were found to affect their perceptions of being trusted. Employees are likely to feel valued by their supervisor when they believe they are treated with justice and empowered by the supervisor. Specifically, employees' felt reliance is high when they feel they are empowered in addition to

being treated with justice, but felt disclosure is influenced by both. Although justice might entail a high quality of the relationship between the follower and the leader (Linde, 1995), followers are more likely to feel being relied when they are empowered. When making judgement of whether their leaders have willingness to share personal or sensitive information with them, followers considers perceived justice and empowerment from the leaders.

5.2 A summary of the outcomes of downward trust

The same outcome variables were examined in the two empirical chapters (3 and 4) – follower in-role job performance, OCBI and OCBO. These are the most prominent individual job outcomes that organisations and leaders consider. The positive influence of downward trust on employee job performance is embedded in the norm of reciprocity in social exchange relationships (Blau, 1964b). As described in the previous chapters, followers are more likely to reciprocate their leaders' trust, particularly when it is perceived. The followers will work harder or even go beyond their supervisors' expectations. Therefore, studying the outcomes of downward trust contributes to social exchange theory by demonstrating the influence of the giver's trust intention on the receiver's behaviours.

For in-role job performance rated by the supervisor, in Chapter 3 the follower was found to be evaluated highly for in-role job performance if the supervisor has a high intention of relying on the follower and has high positive expectations of him or her. Supervisors are inclined to evaluate followers highly for OCBI if they can rely on them, disclose sensitive information with them and have positive expectations of them. However, when evaluating followers' OCBO, reliance and positive expectations were found to be the supervisor's main concerns. When followers were

asked to evaluate their own job performance in Chapter 4, felt reliance by the supervisor enhanced their self-evaluated performance. This positive connection was explained by enhanced confidence in their working capabilities and self-esteem.

5.3 The interaction between downward trust and upward trust

A bilateral approach is adopted in Chapter 4 that contributes to the trust literature by considering the interactional process between the trustor and the trustee. Previous trust research mostly adopts a one-side method only focusing on one party's perceptions of the other. However, asymmetric trust exists in trust building process (Tomlinson, et al., 2009). Given this research gap, the interaction between downward trust and upward trust was examined in Chapter 4. The effects of this interaction were studied by examining congruence and incongruence between downward trust (follower felt trust) and upward trust (trust in leaders) using an empirical technique – response surface analysis, which provides insights into the influence of congruence and incongruence between trust in the leadership and felt trust from the leader on employees' self-evaluations and job performance. The relationships are visualized using three-dimensional graphs.

In general, follower occupational self-efficacy, OBSE and job performance were found to be enhanced when upward trust and downward trust were both high rather than when both were low. When the levels of upward trust and downward trust were different, according to responses from followers the outcome variables were higher if downward trust was higher than upward trust. This may be because the quality of the relationship might be higher when followers receive (feel trusted) more than they give (extend trust to the supervisor), as in the need-supplement fit literature

(Edwards, 1995). These findings highlight the importance of felt trust in understanding trust relationships between followers and leaders.

5.4 Implications and directions for future research

Besides the contributions discussed in each of the empirical chapters. Overall, this thesis has several theoretical and methodological implications for both the trust and organisational behaviour literatures.

First, this thesis has painted an integrated picture of downward trust from both leader and follower perspectives. Complementing upward trust (trust in leaders), downward trust makes unique contributions to our understanding of trust relationships between leaders and followers. As leaders are more powerful and control more resources (Korsgaard et al., 2015), downward trust is different from upward trust. Hence, the findings in this thesis advance our knowledge of trust by supporting the proposed relationships between the antecedents and outcomes of leader trust in the follower and follower felt trust. Since the thesis has focussed on the influence of downward trust on followers, future research needs to focus on its influence on leaders, e.g. on the relationship between leader trust in the follower and leader effectiveness and performance.

A second contribution of this thesis is an improvement in trust measurement. Its multifaceted measurement of leader trust in the follower combines willingness to be vulnerable (reliance intention and disclosure intention) with positive expectations to fill the research gap regarding better linking trust measurement with the conceptualization of trust (McEvily et al., 2011). Future research needs to test my newly developed positive expectation scale with different samples to confirm its validity and reliability. Willingness to be vulnerable and positive expectations are

theoretically distinct (Ferrin et al., 2008), of which the latter refers to how the trustee will behave. As all of the five widely cited noteworthy trust measures identified by McEvily and Tortoriello (2011), cover only one dimension, this is important for future research to cover both dimensions: willingness to be vulnerable and positive expectations.

Another measurement suggestion for future trust research is to consider a linkage between domain-specific trust and trust generally. Indeed, in the management literature trust is defined as a domain-specific construct (Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006; Mayer et al., 1995). That is, the trustor trusts the trustee to perform some tasks but may not do so to perform others. However, looking more closely at existing measurements of trust (see the review by McEvily and Tortoriello, 2011), nearly all the trust scales are measuring a general type of trust, for example, “This person approaches his/her job with professionalism and dedication” in McAllister (1995); “I would be willing to let top management have complete control over my future in this company” in Mayer and Davis (1999); “ I think carefully before telling him or her my opinion” in Currall and Judge (1995); and “I rely on his or her work-related judgement” in Gillespie (2003). These items are asking participants to offer an answer based on an average evaluation of their leaders or followers. Nevertheless, in the workplace, there are various responsibilities that a follower or a leader takes. Therefore, the existing trust measurement instruments fail to measure the type of trust that they claim to. Two remedies are suggested: a) place the participants in a situation where they offer answers to a questionnaire based on the experience of their most recent work project or job task; and/or b) employ an experimental method to manipulate a working scenario and relate it to other trust-related questions.

The third contribution of this thesis is that it introduces a person-oriented approach to trust research and demonstrates the potential that such an approach might have for furthering our understanding of antecedents of trust. Such an approach is especially appropriate to study the factors predicting trust. Previous trust research has attempted to answer the question of which factors influence the level of trust extended by the trustor, including different facets of trustee trustworthiness or behaviour. However, a trustee as a person is more complex than a summation of variables. The complex interactions between variables, sometimes in different contexts, indicate the limitations of a variable-oriented approach. In addition, as Foti and her colleagues (2007, 2012) suggest, a person-oriented approach is superior when investigating individual differences in different contexts. Future research can apply this method beyond examining profiles of follower trustworthiness and explore the interactions of aspects of trustworthiness with different situations, e.g. different trust development stages.

Relatedly, there is a need to investigate the stability and dynamics of the profiles identified in Chapter 3. For example, different types of followers may develop in different ways. As working ability can be trained and improved but benevolence and integrity are relatively stable, it is easier for well-meaning followers to develop into trustworthy or trustable followers than it is for capable followers to develop into trustworthy followers. Another direction for future research is to examine the dynamics of trust extended by the supervisor to followers with different follower profiles, for example whether well-meaning followers can expect long-term supervisor trust as benevolence is regarded as an affective factor indicating high quality of trust relationships (Colquitt et al., 2007). In addition, experiments should

manipulate the five different follower profiles and ask leaders to evaluate trust levels for different profiles.

A fourth implication concerns the interactions between downward trust and upward trust, especially the influence of congruence and incongruence between these two types of trust. In Chapter 4, the congruence and incongruence between follower felt trust and trust in the leader were examined. The assumption was supported that there is more likely to be a positive influence on followers when felt trust is higher than trust in the leader. As Korsgaard et al. (2015) demonstrate, trust is not always mutual. Hence, the findings of incongruence between downward and upward trust is especially crucial to understanding of the influence of asymmetric trust. Future research can contribute to our understanding by examining congruence and incongruence between trust in followers and trust in leaders using paired leader-follower samples. Examining the influence of such congruence and incongruence on leader effectiveness and behaviour would make a unique contribution to the trust literature.

Fifth, this thesis has investigated followers' felt trust and its influence on their working behaviours. Felt trust is a relatively new trust research area that needs more study. Given its crucial role in activating reciprocity norms in social exchange relationships, as discussed in Chapter 2, future research might benefit from examining trust and felt trust as processes to investigate the interactions between trust from different parties over time, such as the influence of felt trust (time 1) on the receiver's trust in the giver (time 2), and vice versa. Moreover, felt trust as examined from a follower perspective is worth research efforts to explore how leader felt trust influences the relationship with the follower from the leader perspective and

how leader felt trust influences leadership or leader behaviour. Furthermore, felt trust is associated with both leader and follower identities. Therefore, future felt trust research is suggested to consider implicit leadership and followership theories.

Finally, this thesis has implications for leaders and followers, providing them with suggestions to deal with their trust relationships. For leaders attempting to build trust relationships with their followers, the present findings suggest that they should treat their followers fairly and delegate tasks in order to increase follower felt trust. Felt trust is crucial to follower job performance as it enhances follower self-evaluation. However, leaders should probably be cautious about sharing sensitive information with followers as negative information can reduce their self-confidence. For followers, it is important to show ability, benevolence and integrity to the supervisor to build a trust relationship, even when they are perceived to have low availability and/or receptivity.

6 CHAPTER 6 REFERENCES

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Appendix I Response Surface Analysis Figure 4.5 (c) and (d) to Figure 4.16 (c) and (d)

Figure 4.5 Response surface analysis: the mediated and total effects of reliance fit on in-role job performance through occupational self-efficacy

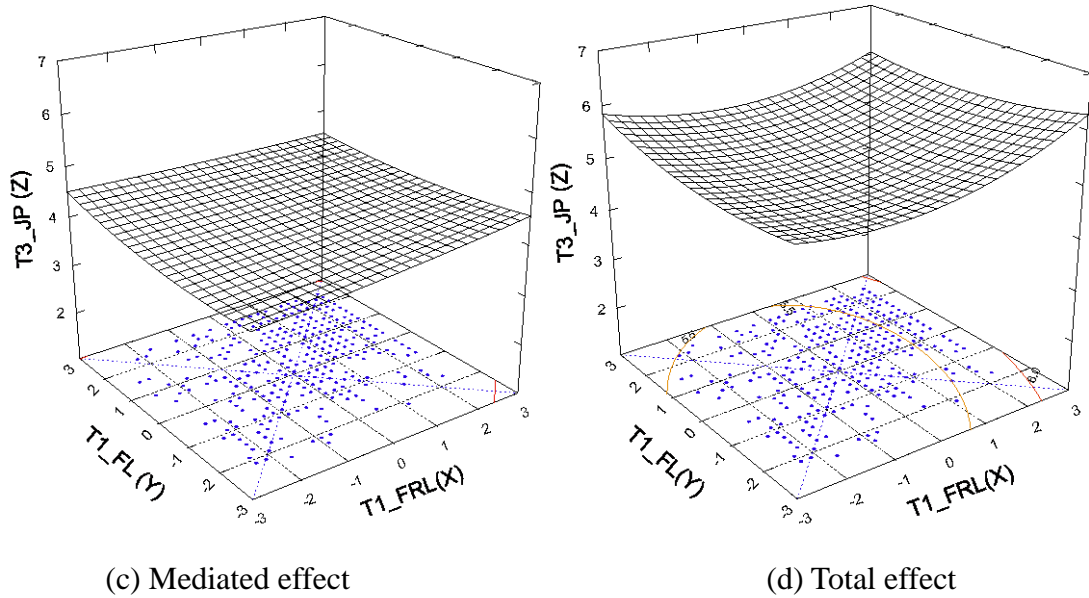


Figure 4.6 Response surface analysis: the mediate and total effects of reliance fit on OCBI through occupational self-efficacy

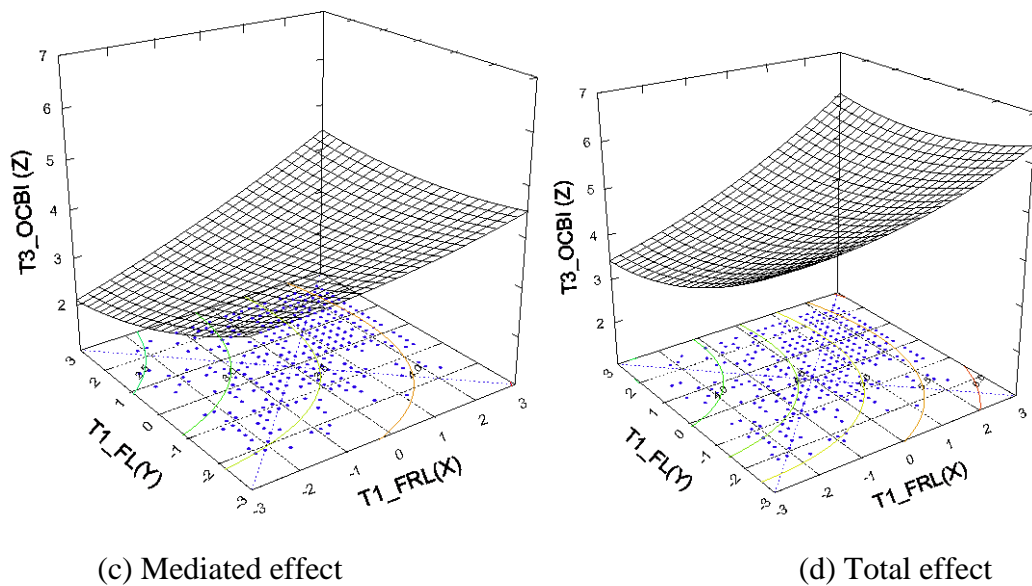


Figure 4.7 Response surface analysis: the mediated and total effects of reliance fit on OCBO through occupational self-efficacy

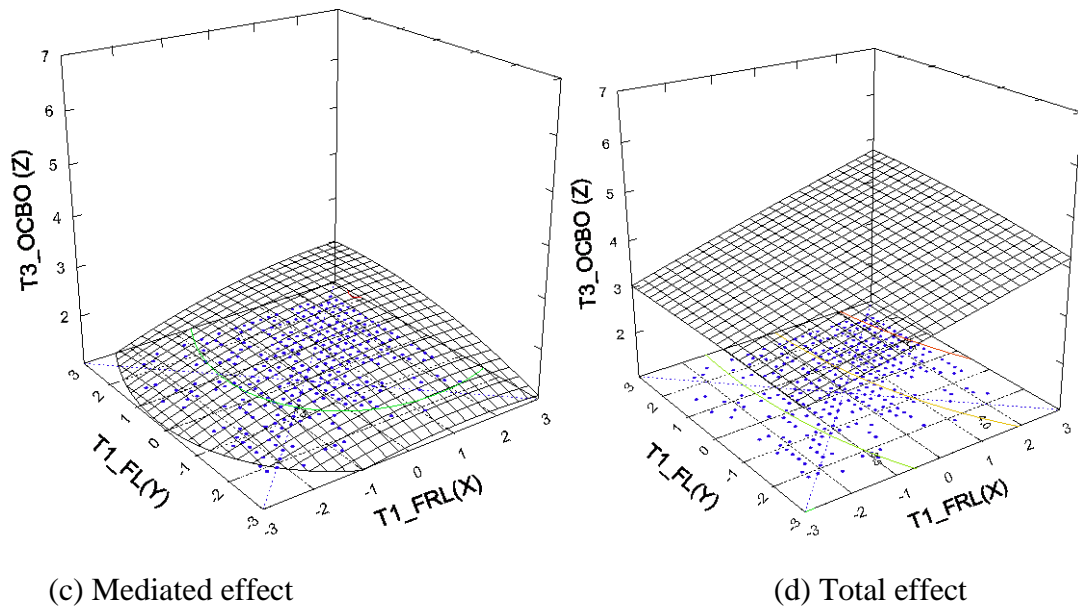


Figure 4.8 Response surface analysis: the direct and indirect effects of disclosure fit on in-role job performance through occupational self-efficacy

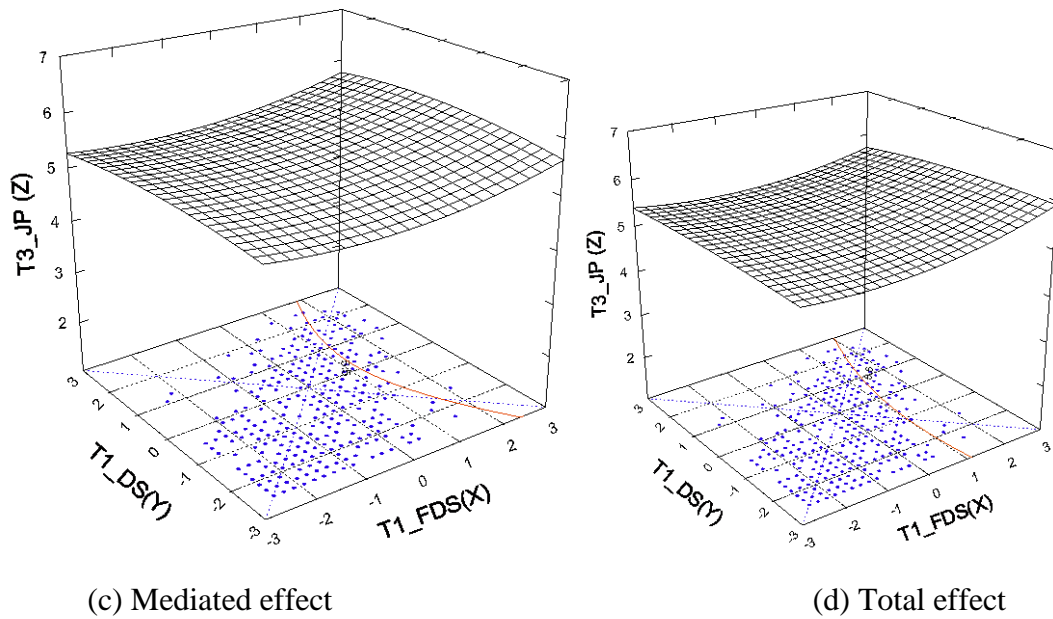


Figure 4.9 Response surface analysis: the mediated and total effects of disclosure fit on OCBI through occupational self-efficacy

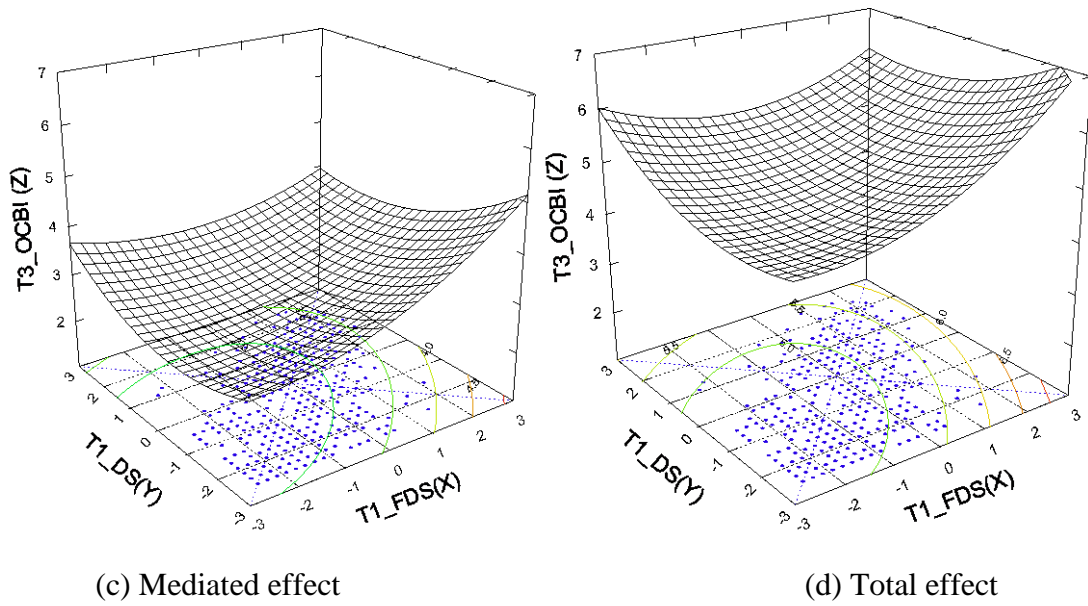


Figure 4.10 Response surface analysis: the mediated and total effects of disclosure fit on OCBO through occupational self-efficacy

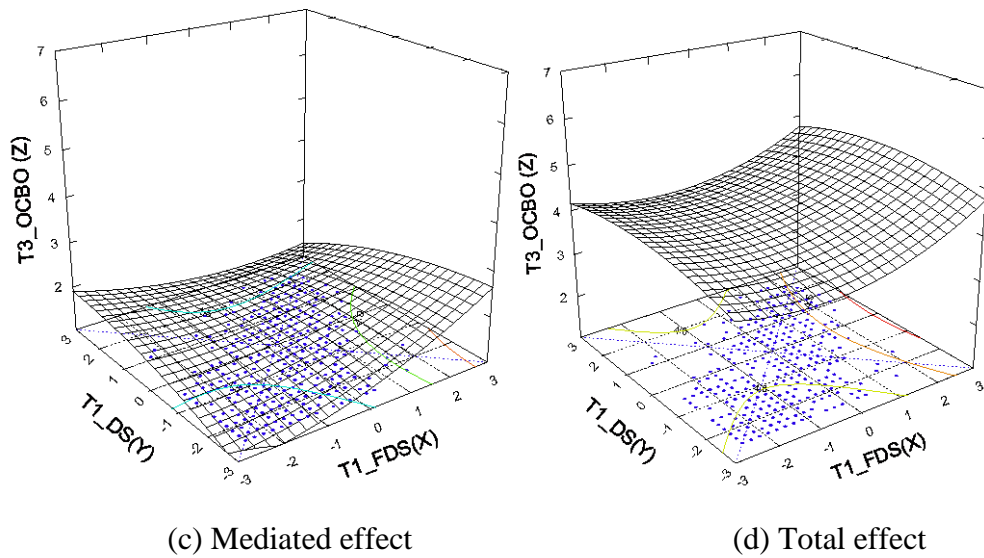


Figure 4.11 Response surface analysis: the mediated and total effects of reliance fit on in-role job performance through OBSE

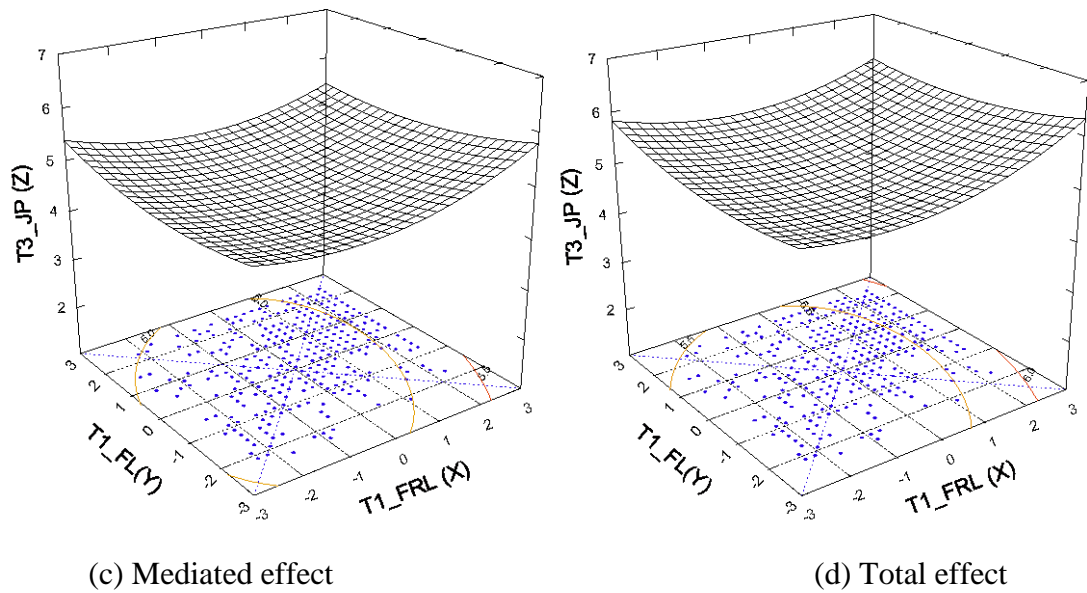


Figure 4.12 Response surface analysis: the mediated and total effects of reliance fit on OCBI through OBSE

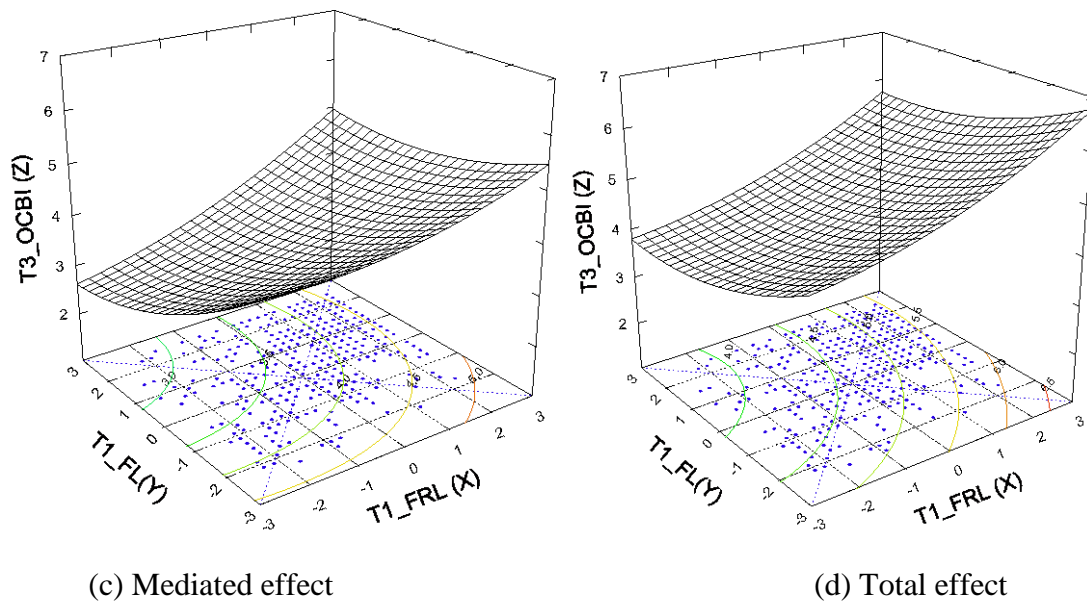


Figure 4.13 Response surface analysis: the mediated and total effects of reliance fit on OCBO through OBSE

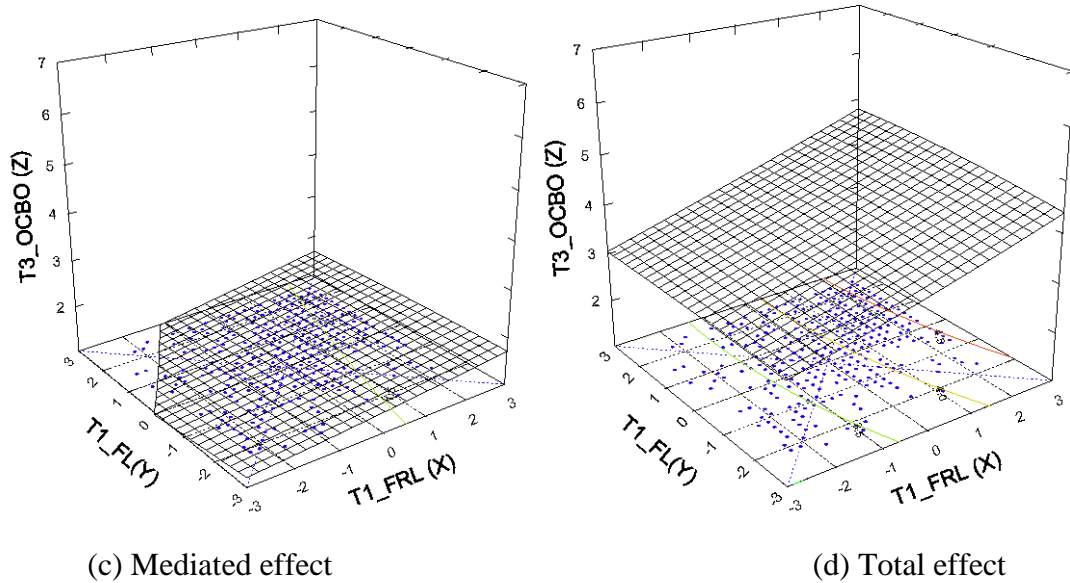


Figure 4.14 Response surface analysis: the mediated and total effects of disclosure fit on in-role job performance through OBSE

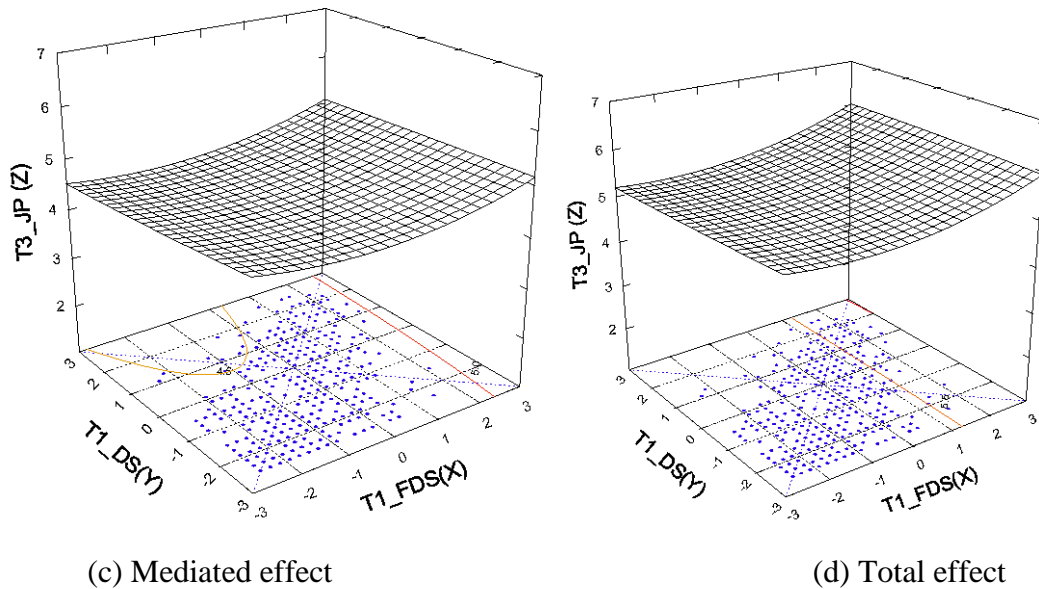


Figure 4.15 Response surface analysis: the mediated and total effects of disclosure fit on OCBI through OBSE

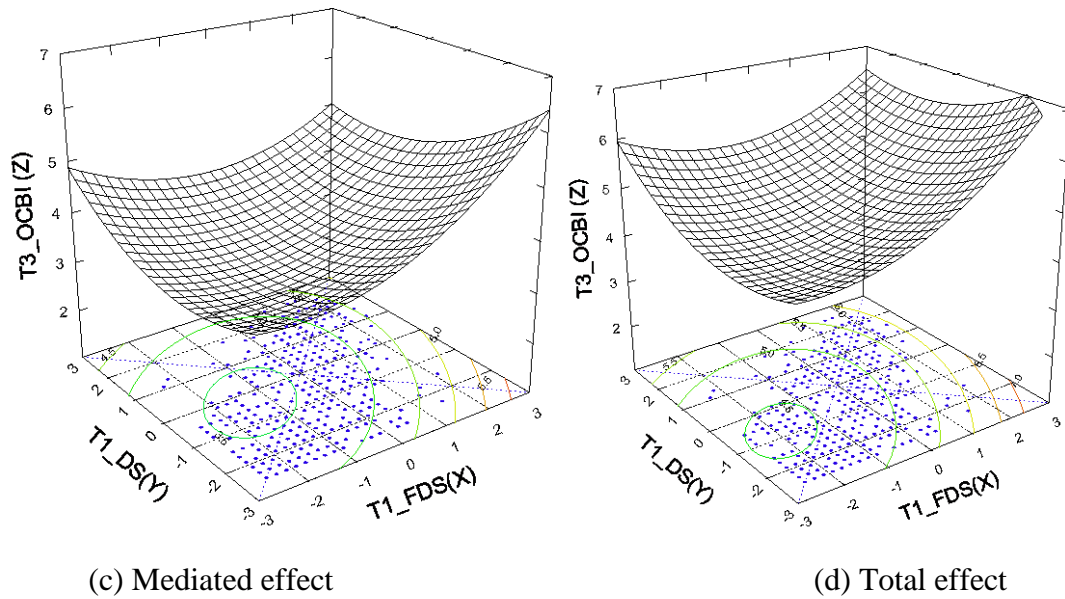
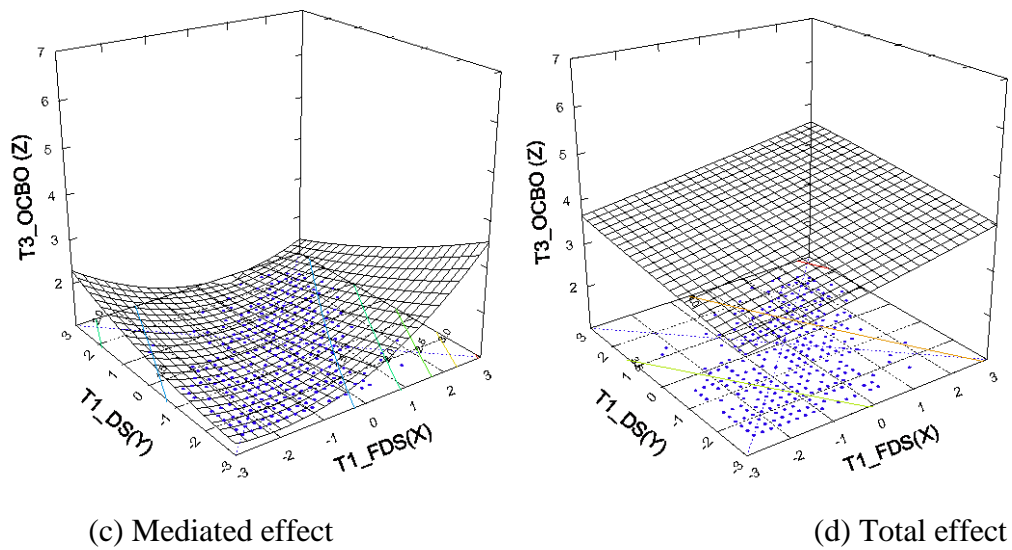


Figure 4.16 Response surface analysis: the mediated and total effects of disclosure fit on OCBO through OBSE



Appendix II Instruments in Chapter 3

Subordinate ABI (Mayer & Davis, 1999)

Ability :

1. This subordinate is very capable of performing his/her job.
2. This subordinate is known to be successful at the things he/she tries to do...
3. This subordinate has much knowledge about the work that needs to be done.
4. I feel very confident about this subordinate's skill.
5. This subordinate has specialised capabilities that can increase our perform...
6. This subordinate is well qualified.

Benevolence:

1. This subordinate is very concerned about my welfare.
2. My needs and desires are very important to this subordinate.
3. This subordinate would not knowingly do anything to hurt me.
4. This subordinate really looks out for what is important to me.
5. This subordinate will go out of his/her way to help me.

Integrity

1. This subordinate has a strong sense of justice.
2. I never have to wonder whether this subordinate will stick to his/her word.
3. This subordinate tries hard to be fair in dealing with others.
4. This subordinate's actions and behaviours are consistent.
5. I like this subordinate's values.
6. Sound principles seem to guide this subordinat's behaviour.

Subordinate availability and integrity (Werbel & Lopes Henriques, 2009)

Availability

1. This subordinate is in close proximity.
2. I could easily observe this subordinate's work activities if needed.

3. This subordinate is easy to find when needed for a task.

Receptivity

1. This subordinate listens to my ideas and input.
2. This subordinate makes an effort to understand what I have to say.
3. This subordinate mostly accepts my suggestions and explanations.
4. This subordinate does what I ask of him/her.

Supervisor's trust in subordinates (Gillespie, 2003)

Reliance

1. rely on this subordinate's work-related judgments?
2. rely on this subordinate's task-related skills and abilities?
3. rely on this subordinate to handle an important issue on your behalf?
4. rely on this subordinate to represent your work accurately to others?
5. rely on this subordinate to back you up in difficult situations?

Disclosure

1. share your personal feelings with this subordinate?
2. confide in this subordinate about personal issues that are affecting your work?
3. discuss honestly how you feel about your work with this subordinate, even negative feelings and frustration?
4. discuss work-related problems or difficulties that could potentially be used to disadvantage you with this subordinate?
5. share your personal beliefs with this subordinate?

Supervisor positive expectations (newly developed)

1. This subordinate will not disappoint me.
2. This subordinate will try his/her best to help me if I ask.
3. This subordinate will not make my job more difficult.

4. This subordinate will keep my personal issues secret if I share them with h...
5. This subordinate will not take advantage of the information I have shared w...
6. This subordinate will respect my personal beliefs.
7. In general, this subordinate meets my expectation.

Supervisor trust propensity (Mayer & Davis, 1999)

1. One should be very cautious with strangers.
2. Most experts tell the truth about the limits of their knowledge.
3. Most people can be counted on to do what they say they will do.
4. These days, you must be alert or someone is likely to take advantage of you...
5. Most salespeople are honest in describing their products.
6. Most repair people will not overcharge people who are ignorant of their spe...
7. Most people answer public opinion polls honestly.
8. Most adults are competent at their jobs.

Supervisor distress disclosure index (Kahn & Hessling, 2001)

1. When I feel upset, I usually confide in others.
2. When something unpleasant happens to me, I often look for someone to talk
t...
3. When I feel depressed or sad, I tend to keep those feelings to myself.
4. When I am in a bad mood, I talk about it with others.
5. I rarely look for people to talk with when I am having a problem.
6. I prefer not to talk about my problems.
7. I typically don't discuss things that upset me.
8. I try to find people to talk with about my problems.
9. If I have a bad day, the last thing I want to do is talk about it.

10. When I'm distressed I don't tell anyone.
11. I usually seek out someone to talk to when I am in a bad mood.
12. I am willing to tell others my distressing thoughts.

Subordinate in-role job performance (Williams & Anderson, 1997)

1. This subordinate adequately completes assigned duties.
2. This subordinate fulfils responsibilities specified in job description.
3. This subordinate performs tasks that are expected of me.
4. This subordinate meets formal performance requirements of the job.
5. This subordinate engages in activities that will directly affect his or her performance.
6. This subordinate neglects aspects of the job he or she is obligated to perform (reversed item).
7. This subordinate fails to perform essential duties (reversed item).

Subordinate extra-role job performance (Lee & Allen, 2002)

OCBI

1. This subordinate helps others who have been absent.
2. This subordinate willingly gives his/her time to help others who have work-related problems.
3. This subordinate adjusts his/her work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off.
4. This subordinate goes out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group.
5. This subordinate shows genuine concern and courtesy toward co-workers, even under the most trying business or personal situations.

6. This subordinate gives up time to help others who have work or non-work problems.
7. This subordinate assists others with their duties.
8. This subordinate shares personal property with others to help their work.

OCBO

1. This subordinate attends functions that are not required but that help the organisational image.
2. This subordinate keeps up with developments in the organisation.
3. This subordinate defends the organisation when other employees criticise it.
4. This subordinate shows pride when representing the organisation in public.
5. This subordinate offers ideas to improve the functioning of the organisation.
6. This subordinate expresses loyalty toward the organisation.
7. This subordinate takes action to protect the organisation from potential problems.
8. This subordinate demonstrates concern about the image of the organisation.

Appendix III Instruments in Chapter 4

The four dimensions of justice were measured using Colquitt et al. (2001)

Interpersonal justice

1. Does your supervisor treat you in a polite manner?
2. Does your supervisor treat you with dignity?
3. Does your supervisor treat you with respect?
4. Does your supervisor refrain from improper remarks or comments?

Procedural justice

1. Are you able to express your views and feelings during those procedures?
2. Can you influence over the outcome arrived at by those procedures?
3. Are those procedures applied consistently?
4. Are those procedures free of bias?
5. Are those procedures based on accurate information?
6. Are you able to appeal your work outcome arrived at by those procedures?
7. Do those procedures uphold ethical and moral standards in your opinion?

Distributive justice

1. Do those outcomes reflect the effort that you have put into your work?
2. Are those outcomes appropriate for the work you have completed?
3. Do those outcomes reflect what you have contributed to your work?
4. Are those outcomes justified, given your performance?

Informational justice

1. Is your supervisor candid in his/her communications with you?
2. Does your supervisor explain the working procedure thoroughly?
3. Are your supervisor's explanations regarding procedures reasonable?

4. Does your supervisor communicate details in a timely manner?
5. Does your supervisor tailor communications to meet individuals' specific need?

Perceived delegation (Schriesheim et al., 1998)

1. My supervisor encourages me to determine for myself the best way to carry out an assignment or accomplish a task.
2. My supervisor encourages me to take the initiative to resolve work problems on my own.
3. My supervisor delegates to me the authority to make important decisions and implement them without his/her prior approval.
4. My supervisor asks me to take primary responsibility for planning a major activity or project for the work unit.
5. My supervisor delegates to me the responsibility for an administrative task previously handled by himself or herself.
6. My supervisor allows me to decide when to do the different work activities in my job.
7. My supervisor lets me monitor the quality of my work and correct an error or defect by myself.

Subordinate felt trust (Gillespie, 2003)

Reliance

To what extent do you feel your supervisor...

1. rely on your work-related judgments?
2. rely on your task-related skills and abilities?
3. rely on you to handle an important issue on his/her behalf?
4. rely on you to represent his/her work accurately to others?

5. rely on you to back him/her up in difficult situations?

Disclosure

To what extent do you feel your supervisor...

1. share his/her personal feelings with this subordinate?
2. confide in this subordinate about personal issues that are affecting his/her work?
3. discuss honestly how he/she feel about his/her work with this subordinate, even negative feelings and frustration?
4. discuss work-related problems or difficulties that could potentially be use to disadvantage him/her with this subordinate?
5. share his/her personal beliefs with this subordinate?

Organisation-based self-esteem (Pierce et al., 1989).

1. I count in my organisation.
2. I am taken seriously in my organisation.
3. I am important in my organisation.
4. I am trusted in my organisation.
5. There is faith in me in my organisation.
6. I can make a difference in my organisation.
7. I am valuable in my organisation.
8. I am helpful in my organisation.
9. I am efficient in my organisation.
10. I am cooperative in my organisation.

Occupational self-efficacy (Schyns & von Collani, 2002)

1. I can remain calm when facing difficulties in my job because I can rely on my abilities.

2. When I am confronted with a problem in my job, I can usually find several solutions.
3. Whatever comes my way in my job, I can usually handle it.
4. My past experiences in my job have prepared me well for my occupational future.
5. I meet the goals that I set myself in my job.
6. I feel prepared for most of the demands in my job.

Trust in the leader (Gillespie 2003)

To what extent do you...

Reliance

1. rely on your supervisor's work-related judgement?
2. rely on your supervisor's task-related skills and abilities?
3. rely on your supervisor to handle an important issue on your behalf?
4. rely on your supervisor to represent your work accurately to others?
5. rely on your supervisor to back you up in difficult situations?

Disclosure

1. share your personal feelings with your supervisor?
2. confide in your supervisor about personal issues that are affecting your work?
3. discuss honestly how you feel about your work with your supervisor, even negative feelings and frustration?
4. discuss work-related problems or difficulties that could potentially be used to disadvantage you with your supervisor?
5. share your personal beliefs with your supervisor?

Subordinate self-reported in-role job performance (Williams & Anderson, 1997)

1. I adequately complete assigned duties.

2. I fulfill responsibilities specified in job description.
3. I perform tasks that are expected of me.
4. I meet formal performance requirements of the job.
5. I engage in activities that will directly affect my performance evaluation.
6. I neglect aspects of the job I am obligated to perform.
7. I fail to perform essential duties.

Subordinate self-reported extra-role job performance (Lee & Allen, 2002)

OCBI

1. I help others who have been absent.
2. I willingly give my time to help others who have work-related problems.
3. I adjust my work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off.
4. I go out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group.
5. I show genuine concern and courtesy toward co-workers, even under the most trying business or personal situations.
6. I give up time to help others who have work or non-work problems.
7. I assist others with their duties.
8. I share personal property with others to help their work.

OCBO

1. I attend functions that are not required but that help the organisational image.
2. I keep up with developments in the organisation.
3. I defend the organisation when other employees criticise it.
4. I show pride when representing the organisation in public.
5. I offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organisation.

6. I express loyalty toward the organisation.
7. I take action to protect the organisation from potential problems.
8. I demonstrate concern about the image of the organisation.